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HARVARD STUDIES IN EDUCATION

PUBLISHED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF
THE DIVISION OF EDUCATION

VOLUME II

THE APPOINTMENT OF TEACHERS IN CITIES

A DESCRIPTIVE CRITICAL AND
CONSTRUCTIVE STUDY

BY

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PREFACE

THIS study was made possible by the generous response of busy Superintendents to my requests for information and for help in the correction of statements of fact. Not a city was added to or taken from the list of seventy-three cities originally selected for study, and every city replied to my letters except one. It is a pleasure to bear witness to the willingness of Superintendents of Schools to contribute to the detailed study of educational problems.

From the planning of this book to its completion I am indebted in various ways to the members of the Division of Education at Harvard University, under whom my work was done; and especially to Professor Paul H. Hanus, whose sympathetic interest and incisive criticism have been an invaluable guide and stimulus.

FRANK W. BALLOU.

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INTRODUCTION

THE NATURE OF THE STUDY

Descriptive, Critical, and Constructive. This study is descriptive, critical, and constructive. It describes the present methods of appointing teachers in representative city school systems. It shows whether the superintendent of schools, a standing committee of the board of education, or the board itself, or what combination of these three, participates in the formal procedure of appointing a teacher. It shows also, in a general way, the part which each legally plays in making an appointment. It criticises the present methods in the light of prevailing practice and of general principles of school administration. On the basis of such description and criticism it suggests better methods.

Its Implications. But the appointment of a teacher means more than the formal administrative act by which a teacher is selected for a position. The appointment involves the important consideration of finding a person with the qualifications necessary to be a teacher. Hence, eligibility qualifications must be established by every board of education. To determine whether a candidate possesses those qualifications requires some kind of an examination of the candidate. Hence, some agency must be instituted to conduct the examination. Therefore, a study of the appointment of teachers involves, among other things, some consideration of (a) eligibility qualifications, covering such topics as age, teaching experience, and scholastic and professional training; (b) the examinations, both oral and written, by which the scholastic and professional fitness of the candidate is judged; (c) the board of examiners,

or similar agency, which conducts the examination; and (d) the merit list of qualified candidates which usually grows out of an effort to appoint teachers according to merit.

Special Attention Given Agencies which do the Appointing. Naturally a study of the appointment of teachers concerns itself also with the agencies which do the appointing. Hence, special attention is given to the board of education and to the city superintendent of schools. These agencies are studied critically to determine what qualifications each possesses for discharging the important function of appointing teachers. The descriptive and critical study of (a) the present procedure in appointing teachers, and (b) the agencies which now do the appointing, will form the basis for the constructive suggestions.

SCOPE AND LIMITS OF THE STUDY

Initial Appointment of Regular Teachers. This study covers the initial appointment of regular teachers in public day elementary and public day secondary schools in seventy-three representative cities of the United States. Initial appointment means a teacher's first appointment in a school system, as differentiated from subsequent or annual appointments. Further, this study has to do only with the appointment of teachers in city school systems and not in rural communities. The appointment of kindergarten teachers, of teachers of special branches in the elementary school, of teachers of special subjects in the secondary school, of principals, and of other administrative officers has not been covered in this study. The study is also confined to public day schools, excluding from consideration private and evening schools.

Selection of Cities: First Class Cities. Even with the

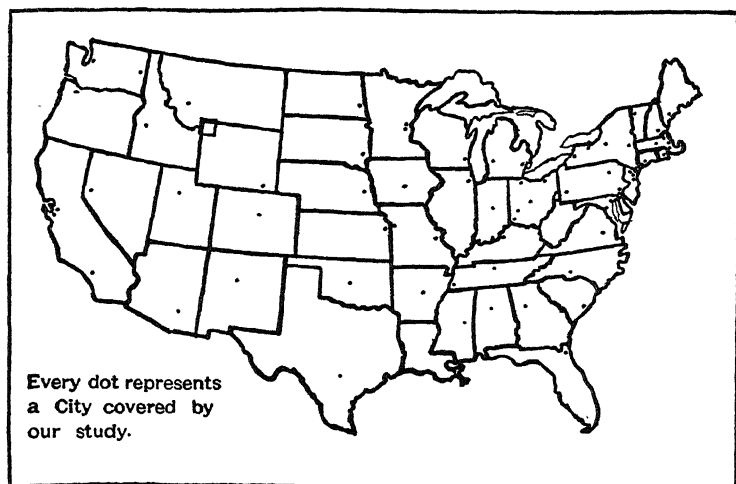
above exclusions, it was impossible to include all cities of the country. It was necessary, therefore, to select representative cities whose methods of appointing teachers were to be studied. The first group of cities, called throughout this monograph *first class cities*, contains all cities in the United States having a population of 300,000 or over. The cities¹ are: Boston, New York, Buffalo, Newark, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Baltimore, Washington, New Orleans, Cleveland, Cincinnati, Chicago, Detroit, Milwaukee, Minneapolis, St. Louis, San Francisco, and Los Angeles. Total 18.

Second Class Cities. The second group of cities, called throughout this monograph *second class cities*, contains all cities in the United States having a population of from 100,000 to 300,000. The cities are: Cambridge, Fall River, Lowell, Worcester, Providence, Bridgeport, New Haven, Albany, Rochester, Syracuse, Jersey City, Paterson, Scranton, Richmond, Atlanta, Louisville, Memphis, Nashville, Birmingham, Columbus, Dayton, Toledo, Indianapolis, Grand Rapids, St. Paul, Omaha, Kansas City, Mo., Denver, Seattle, Spokane, Portland, Ore., and Oakland. Total 32.

Third Class Cities. The third group of cities, called throughout this monograph *third class cities*, is a more heterogeneous group. It is made up of cities that have a population ranging from about 11,000 to nearly 100,000, and was made up in the following manner. After the first class and second class cities had been selected, it was found that several states were not represented in either selection, because they have no cities with as many as 100,000 people. Therefore, in order to make this study representative of

¹ The order of the cities here and elsewhere always follows their classification by divisions of the country: the divisions are those regularly made by the United States Bureau of Education. For a list of the cities and the population of each (in thousands) classified by divisions, see Appendix A.

every state in the Union, a third group of cities was made up, consisting of the largest cities in each state not represented in either of the other two groups. Obviously none of these cities has a population of 100,000, although some nearly reach that number. On the other hand, the largest city in one of our states has less than 12,000 people. As a result, the group of third class cities is not as homogeneous as the other two groups. The cities are Portland, Me., Manchester, N. H., Burlington, Vt., Wilmington, Del., Wheeling, W. Va., Charlotte, N. C., Charleston, S. C., Jacksonville, Fla., Meridian, Miss., San Antonio, Tex., Little Rock, Ark., Oklahoma, Okla., Des Moines, Ia., Fargo, N. D., Sioux Falls, S. D., Kansas City, Kan., Butte, Mont., Cheyenne, Wy., Albuquerque, N. M., Tucson, Ariz., Salt Lake City, Utah, Reno, Nev., and Boise, Ida. Total 23.



THE RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF THE TEACHER

What is Involved in Providing Education. The problem of providing public education, whether in a rural district

or in a city, involves three fundamental elements, namely, finding a suitable teacher, providing the teacher's pay, and furnishing a place for the teacher to work. Our study has to do only with the appointment of a suitable teacher, and not at all with salary or with the school building and its equipment. A brief consideration of relative magnitude of some factors will indicate to some extent the importance of the teacher.

Enrolment and Teachers. The enrolment in the public day elementary and day high schools in the cities of the United States of over 5,000 in 1911-12 was 6,141,866 pupils.¹ This number by itself is incomprehensible. Its significance can be realized or appreciated in part when it is pointed out that this vast army of school children is more than 6 per cent of the total population of the United States. If all pupils attending school in rural communities and smaller cities were included in the above enrolment, the per cent would be more than twice as large. To teach these 6,000,000 pupils in our public schools necessitated the employment in 1911-12 of 154,815 teachers.²

Operating Expenses and Teachers' Salaries. The total operating expenses (exclusive of new buildings, sites, equipment, interest, and other indebtedness) in the city school systems which have been organized to educate these pupils were \$177,393,567.² Of this amount for operating expenses, \$128,433,819,² or over 72 per cent, were paid in the salaries of principals, teachers, and supervisors.³

The Teacher the Centre of the Problem. The teacher is the centre of the problem of providing education. The supervision by principals, by assistant superintendents, or

¹ Data taken from the *Report of the United States Commissioner of Education for 1912*, vol. ii, pp. 22-29.

² *Ibid.*

³ *Report of the United States Commissioner of Education* does not segregate the salaries of teachers.

by superintendents, the assistance of special teachers, the material equipment of the school, and every other educational function or resource is for the purpose of improving the instruction which it is the teacher's duty to give. From the standpoint of the pupil also, the teacher is the largest factor in his education. The teacher often largely determines the pupil's attitude toward school and hence toward his own education.

When one realizes that the instruction given in our city schools alone directly affects annually over 6 per cent of the total population of the United States; that to give this instruction required 154,815 teachers; that the cost of this instruction and its supervision is over 72 per cent of the total operating expenses of our city school systems; that the community's effort to provide instruction for its youth and the pupils' attitude toward school and education centre in the teacher — when one realizes these facts, then one can begin to understand the significance and importance of appointing suitable teachers.

TO WHAT EXTENT IS THIS STUDY REPRESENTATIVE?

It is important to consider to what extent this study is representative of all cities of the country. For this purpose a comparison is made between certain important educational factors in the cities covered in this study and those same factors in all cities of the country. These factors are population, enrolment, number of teachers, operating expenses, and salaries of teachers and supervisory officers.¹

Population. The total population of the United States in 1910 was 91,972,266. Of this number 42,623,383 lived

¹ Data taken from the *Report of the United States Commissioner of Education for 1912*, vol. ii, pp. 5, 22-29. Data for a few cities were missing. See Appendix B.

in cities of over 5,000 people. Of this total number living in cities in 1910, 21,353,705, or 50.9 per cent, lived in the cities included in this study.

Enrolment. The total enrolment in the public day schools in all cities of over 5,000 in 1911 was 6,141,866. Of this number 3,212,151, or 52.2 per cent, were enrolled in cities covered by this study.

Number of Teachers. The total number of teachers employed in all cities of over 5,000 in 1911 was 154,815. Of this number 76,955, or 49.7 per cent, were employed in the cities covered by this study, and hence were directly affected by the systems of appointment which are to be considered.

Operating Expenses. The total operating expenses for all cities of over 5,000 people in 1911 were \$177,393,567. Of this amount \$92,476,845, or 52.1 per cent, were expended by the cities which are covered in this study.

Salaries of Teachers and Supervisors. The total amount expended in the cities of over 5,000 in 1911, for salaries of principals, teachers, and supervisors, was \$128,433,819. Of this amount \$60,411,771, or 51.7 per cent, were spent in the cities within our study for teachers' salaries alone.

The cities which we are studying include:

- (a) 50.9 per cent of the total urban population in the United States.
- (b) 52.2 per cent of the total enrolment in cities.
- (c) 49.7 per cent of the total number of teachers employed in cities.
- (d) 52.1 per cent of the total operating expenses in cities.
- (e) 51.7 per cent of the total amount of salaries paid to principals, teachers, and supervisory officers in cities.

METHOD OF THE STUDY

Sources of Information. Besides the general literature of the subject and the educational laws of the states, the sources of information for this study were the school documents issued by city boards of education. Chief among these documents were, first, the rules and regulations governing the activities of the boards of education and those governing the city schools, and, second, the annual reports of boards of education. The rules and regulations were obtained largely through direct correspondence with superintendents. The annual reports of the boards in most of the larger cities were consulted by the writer in the library of the division of education.

Necessity of Securing Co-operation of Superintendents. Because the rules and regulations are not printed every year, and in some cities have not been printed for several years, it was impossible to know whether the rules governing the appointment of teachers had remained the same since the rules were last printed. Several facts were also needed about the board of education and the superintendent of schools which are seldom stated in the annual reports or in any other school documents. Such facts are the qualifications of school board members, the tenure of office of the superintendent of schools, and how that tenure is fixed. Practically the only feasible source of information for these facts was the superintendent of schools or some one connected with the city school system. In order to be sure that the facts secured were up to date, and in order to secure data not easily obtained from any other source, the following plan was adopted.

Confirmation of Facts by Superintendents. After utilizing all the available sources of information at hand, the writer

tabulated¹ what information he had secured concerning each city — sometimes it was complete, sometimes very incomplete — and sent it to the superintendent of schools with a personal letter asking him to confirm or correct the statement of facts and to add any information which the writer had thus far been unable to obtain. The writer desires to express his sincere appreciation of the assistance thus rendered by busy superintendents, without whose co-operation this study could not have been as complete or as accurate as it is. The information which was secured in this manner is largely presented in the three basic tables of the study.²

¹ For memorandum blank used, see Appendix C.

² Namely, those on appointment, pp. 13-16; those on the board, pp. 93-98; and those on the superintendent, pp. 148-150.

PART I

METHODS OF APPOINTING TEACHERS IN
REPRESENTATIVE CITY SCHOOL
SYSTEMS

THE APPOINTMENT OF TEACHERS IN CITIES

CHAPTER I

THE EVOLUTION OF THE PRESENT APPOINTIVE AGENCIES ¹

HISTORICAL SURVEY

ALTHOUGH this monograph is intended to be descriptive and critical, a brief review of the historical stages through which the appointment of teachers has passed seems necessary and hence justifiable. Such a review will furnish a basis for a better understanding and interpretation of the present practices in appointing teachers.

Selection of the Teacher by the Town Meeting. The simplest method of providing education for any community in this country was that practiced in the typical early New England town meeting. The community, feeling that "the good education of children is of singular behoof and benefit to any Commonwealth," ² proceeded to provide for the education of its children. The provision was made through the town meeting, in which was expressed the composite will of the community. Educational administration and control was thus exercised by the direct vote of the community. The two essential duties for the town meeting to discharge were (a) the selection of a teacher who could instruct the children, and (b) the raising of

¹ With the exception of the last paragraph, this chapter is based on Suzzallo's *The Rise of Local School Supervision in Massachusetts*. References to Suzzallo's monograph are given by pages only.

² Quoted by Martin in his *Evolution of the Massachusetts Public School System*, p. 9.

4 THE APPOINTMENT OF TEACHERS IN CITIES

money with which to pay for his services. "Not only did the town as a whole contribute support to the school, which in many cases meant direct contribution to the schoolmaster, but the town meeting elected the teacher in most places in the thirties and early forties of the seventeenth century."¹ This is the simplest, most direct method of providing education for a community that is to be found in our educational history. This is democratic control of education in its purest form. The voters of the community, directly by and for themselves, decided to have a school, employed a teacher, and raised the money with which to pay him.

Selection of the Teacher by Selectmen. The second stage of evolution is marked by the delegation of the community's responsibility for education. "Not until 1693 did the General Court lay the responsibility 'for the settlement and maintenance of such schoolmaster and masters' anywhere else than upon the inhabitants of the town in general. In that year it divided the responsibility, or, at least, laid it in two places — upon 'the selectmen and the inhabitants of such towns.'"² The town meeting continued to vote the school funds, as it still does in most New England towns to-day; but the matter of finding a teacher and of agreeing on compensation were matters to which the town meeting could not advantageously attend.³ If the teacher could not be procured from the immediate community, the town meeting found it necessary to select some agency to which could be delegated the duty of finding one. The selectmen had been provided to look after the political business of the town during the time when the town meeting was not in session. Consequently it was a natural step for the community, through the town meeting, gradually to delegate more and more of the administration of school affairs

¹ Page 9.

² Page 13.

³ Page 126.

to the selectmen.¹ This does not necessarily mean a lessening of the community's responsibility for education: it means rather that the community is merely asking a group of men, organized for another purpose, to serve the community in the transaction of its educational business. The selectmen continued to be largely responsible for the appointment of teachers until 1789.²

Selection of a Teacher by a Prudential Committee. The third stage of development is marked by the delegation of the selection of the teacher to the prudential committee in 1827. Although Boston had a permanent school committee in 1822, the first of its kind in Massachusetts, for the care and superintendence of the public schools, yet in most towns this care and superintendence covered only certification and inspection of teachers and did not include their appointment.³ The selection of a teacher was placed by law (1827) in the hands of the so-called prudential committee, consisting of one person who was a resident of the district where chosen, and who was charged with the duty "to select and contract with a school teacher for his own district."⁴ Here originated the district system of school administration and the ward method of representation on the school committee of later times.

Selection of Teachers by the School Committee. The fourth stage is marked by the general introduction of a permanent school committee or board of education to bear the educational responsibility of the community. As has been said, the law of 1822 created a permanent school committee for Boston. Towns in New England and later cities generally followed Boston's lead in this respect, so that to-day every city of importance in the country except Buffalo, N. Y., has a legally authorized school committee or board of edu-

¹ Page 36.

² Page 136.

³ Page 21.

⁴ Quoted by Suzzallo, p. 130.

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cation. With the establishment of this permanent board to direct and manage school affairs, responsibility for such matters as the certification, appointment, and supervision of teachers, the course of study, and the building of school houses came to be centralized in the school committee or board of education.

Selection of Teachers by the Superintendent of Schools. The fifth and present stage to be noted in this evolution of the appointment of teachers is the delegation of more or less of the board's responsibility for the appointment of teachers to the superintendent of schools. For the same reasons which prompted the town meeting, and later the selectmen, to delegate this function, the board has found it necessary or desirable to delegate those functions which are technical, and also those which demand continual attention, to properly qualified executive and administrative officers. In order to discharge the functions directly pertaining to instruction, the office of superintendent of schools has been created. The movement for the establishment of this office followed the educational renaissance of the time of Horace Mann and began in Buffalo,¹ N. Y., in 1837. Such offices were created in widely scattered sections of the country, until now the office of city superintendent of schools is found in every city of importance in the United States. To the superintendent has been delegated varying degrees of the board's responsibility for the appointment of teachers.

Summary. The preceding sketch is a brief story of the efforts of the people of a community to provide ways and means of selecting suitable teachers for the instruction of their youth. The passing from one stage to the next marks

¹ Chamberlain, *The Growth of Responsibility and Enlargement of Power of the City School Superintendent*, pp. 374, 375. See also Dexter, *History of Education in the United States*, p. 193.

the failure or the outgrowing of one method of selection and the adoption of another which in turn is to be succeeded. This historical evolution reveals, throughout, the working of the principle of differentiation of functions and the delegation of the performance of those functions by a large body to a smaller body or to a single individual. In early times the community as a whole dealt with the teacher directly. Now the community creates a board of education to assume the common responsibility for providing education. This board in turn, either voluntarily or as required by law, delegates the discharge of particular functions to committees of its own members or to executive or administrative officers whom it selects. From the selection of teachers by the community there has been evolved in most cities a system of selection by standing committees of the board of education, by the board itself, or by the superintendent of schools, or by some combination of these three. Thus, in the appointment of teachers the community has relinquished its direct participation to a board of education, which also in many cities has in part turned that responsibility over to the superintendent of schools. Thus, through an evolutionary process of trial and failure our present methods of appointing teachers have been gradually developed. It will be interesting and profitable to keep in mind the above process of evolution when considering the methods of appointing teachers discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER II

PRESENT METHODS OF APPOINTING TEACHERS IN CITIES

PURPOSE AND SCOPE OF THIS CHAPTER

It is the purpose of this chapter to show the methods of appointing teachers in seventy-three representative cities of the United States. The study will show how generally the board of education directly discharges this function, and how generally the board voluntarily, or as required by law, delegates it either to a standing committee of its own members, or to the superintendent of schools, or to both.

*This Study Based on the Rules.*¹ The data for this chapter have been prepared from the rules and regulations of the board of education in each city. The state laws² or the city charter³ give the city board of education the authority to make such rules and regulations for its own government and for the government of the schools as it deems necessary or desirable. When these rules are properly promulgated

¹ The term rules is used throughout the monograph to mean the rules and regulations adopted by the board of education for its own government and for the government of the schools.

² "The Board shall have power to make all needful rules and regulations for the organization, grading and government in their school district. . . ." — *Revised Statutes of Missouri*, 1909, sec. 10785.

³ "Every such Board of Education . . . shall have power to fix the time of its meetings and proceedings, for the government, regulation and management of the public schools and school property in such city, for the transaction of its business, and the examination, qualification and employment of teachers, which rules and by-laws shall be binding on such Board of Education and all parties dealing with it until formally repealed, . . ." — *Charter of the Board of Education of the City of St. Louis*, 1897, sec. 3.

they have the force of law, not only over the board of education, but also over those dealing with the board. That these rules may have stability and may control the business activities of the board, provision¹ is usually made in the rules themselves whereby more than a bare plurality vote is necessary to set them aside. To some extent the rules are based on state laws; they are, however, largely the result of the board's deliberate action, for which the board alone is responsible. As such the rules embody the board's general conception of its functions: of how the school system ought to be run, of the function of each of the administrative agencies, and of principles of school administration in general. From this it becomes clear that a study of the rules of the board of education is a study not only of the laws made by boards of education governing the conduct of their business, but also of the philosophy of educational administration which the boards entertain.

What a Study of Rules does not Show. Obviously a study of the rules alone cannot show the spirit according to which the rules are administered. Neither can such a study show how far practice deviates from the prescribed regulations. Such a study cannot show how much unofficial authority, or influence, or power is exercised by the superintendent, by a committee of the board (if there be one), or by the board of education itself in the appointment of teachers. When a rule provides, for example, that the superintendent nominate candidates, we do not know how much weight that nomination has with the board or its committee. Further, when a rule provides that a committee of the board "shall make its choice from the proper eligible list, or from the nominees of the superintendent of schools,"²

¹ "All rules and regulations of the Board or any portion thereof, may be suspended at any time by a two-third vote of the Board." — *Rules*, Columbus, 1913, sec. 36.

² *Hand-Book*, Philadelphia, 1912, By-Law xv, sec. 3.

we do not know whether the practice is to accept or to ignore the nominations of the superintendent. Again, in case the superintendent's nomination has to be approved by the committee of the board before the board takes action, we do not know how much significance the committee's approval has with the board. These are all important matters, but they are outside the limits of our study. They could be determined only after personal investigations in each city, and obviously we have not undertaken to make such investigations.

What a Study of the Rules Shows. This study of the rules has been for the single purpose of showing how generally the board of education is itself discharging its legal responsibility for appointing teachers, and how generally it is delegating that function to a committee of its own members or to its executive officer, the superintendent of schools. This is the kernel of our study. For our purpose, therefore, it is not necessary to determine how much weight the board gives to the recommendations either of its standing committee on teachers or of the superintendent; it is important to know that each does or does not participate in the appointment of teachers.

All other considerations are secondary to the one question, whether the highly professional and technical function of appointing teachers is being discharged directly by a board of education consisting of laymen, or whether it is being delegated by the board to the superintendent of schools, who is presumably selected by the board because he possesses superior knowledge of such educational matters as the qualifications of good teachers. In spite of the fact that the rules cannot reveal the spirit in which the appointment of teachers is performed, nevertheless they do show the educational philosophy of the board, as well as the formal method of procedure legally approved by the board for

appointing teachers. This method of procedure is the important feature of our study.

HOW DATA WERE PREPARED

Rules not Always Clear. The rules do not always show logically or clearly what the procedure in appointing teachers really is. Consider the following:

Subject to the approval of the Board, the Committee on Instruction, Teachers and Curriculum shall make all nominations of teachers in writing to the Board after hearing recommendations from the Superintendent and the principal of the school in which the nominee is to serve.¹

What does "subject to the approval of the Board" mean? Does it mean that the committee nominates teachers when the board is willing to have it do so? Or does it mean that the nomination constitutes an appointment when approved by the board? Nowhere in the rules does the term appoint (or any synonymous term) appear. I assume that a recommendation by the superintendent and a nomination by the committee of the board, "subject to the approval of the Board," constitute the process of appointment.

Use of Terms not Uniform. The terms nominate and recommend do not appear to have any distinctive significance, for they are used differently in different cities. For example, in Cambridge, Mass., the superintendent recommends candidates, a committee of the board nominates them to the board, and the board approves the nominations.² In Paterson, N. J., the superintendent recommends candidates to a committee of the board, which committee in turn recommends them to the board.³ In Syracuse,

¹ *Rules*, Cambridge, Mass., 1912, sec. 610.

² See rule previously quoted.

³ "The Committee shall recommend to the Board from time to time for appointment, promotion or transfer in the schools under its supervision, any duly licensed persons who are recommended by the City Superintendent, and who are in its judgment duly qualified." — *Rules*, 1911, sec. 26.

N. Y., the superintendent nominates candidates, a committee of the board recommends them to the board, and the board appoints them.¹

Need of Clearer Definition of Procedure. It appears from the foregoing illustrations (many more could be cited) that there is need of a clearer definition of the procedure in appointing teachers, and also need of a more consistent use of terms. For example, where the board, a standing committee, and the superintendent participate in the appointment, it does not seem reasonable to think that the superintendent and the committee perform the same function as in some cases the phraseology of the rules would lead one to believe.

Methods Used to Minimize Possibilities of Misstatements. These illustrations have been cited to show some of the difficulties involved in interpreting the rules and classifying the methods of appointing teachers in various cities. Every effort has been made to represent accurately the method in each city. Except where specially noted to the contrary, statements of fact have been verified by the superintendents concerned. This has made it certain that the rules have been correctly interpreted, and also that the present practice is in agreement with those rules. Further, to avoid misinterpreting the terminology of the rules, the identical phraseology of the rules has been employed in stating facts in the following tables. The words nominate, recommend, approve, appoint, *et al.*, are used as and when they were used in the rules and regulations defining the procedure of appointing teachers. Also the rules have been quoted verbatim in any discussion where matters of technical detail are of importance. By these precautions it is hoped that

¹ "He [superintendent] shall nominate in writing all officers and teachers. . . . The Committee shall . . . , upon the nomination of the Superintendent of Schools, recommend to the Board . . . ," etc. — *Statutes, By-Laws, and Rules*, Department of Education, 1913, sec. 8.

both the letter and the spirit of the procedure in each city are correctly represented in the tabulation of facts and in the subsequent discussion.

TABULATION OF FACTS CONCERNING APPOINTMENT

The following tabulations show the part officially played by the superintendent of schools, by a committee of the board of education,¹ and by the board of education² itself in the appointment of teachers in the cities indicated. Cities are grouped as first class, second class, and third class, as previously defined.³ They are also separated in the lists to show divisions of the country.⁴

(a) FIRST CLASS CITIES

Cities	Superintendent	Committee of Board	Board of Education
Boston	Appoints	No committee	Approves ⁵
New York	Bd. of supts. nominates	Recommends	Appoints ⁶
Buffalo	Appoints	No committee	No board
Newark	Recommends	Recommends	Appoints
Philadelphia	Recommends	Selects	Approves ⁷
Pittsburgh	Recommends	Takes no action	Appoints ⁸

¹ This general term covers that committee which participates in the appointment of teachers in each city: such as the committee on teachers, committee on instruction, committee on examination and certification, etc.

² This term covers school committee, board of school directors, board of school inspectors, and other titles by which this agency is known for different cities.

³ See Introduction.

⁴ See Appendix A.

⁵ "In an original appointment of subordinate teachers, he [superintendent] shall consult the principal of the school or district and the Assistant Superintendent in charge thereof." — Sec. 105.

⁶ "For all purposes affecting the appointment, promotion or transfer of teachers in any school, the district Superintendent assigned to the district in which such school is situated, the principal of such school, . . . shall have seats in the Board of Superintendents, with votes on such proposition." — Charter, 1901, sec. 1090.

⁷ The committee is not required to select a teacher whom the superintendent recommends; it may select one from the eligible list without or disregarding his recommendation.

⁸ "No teacher shall receive an appointment in the schools of Pittsburgh who is not recommended to the Board by the Superintendent of Schools." — Art. vii, sec. 14.

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Cities	Superintendent	Committee of Board	Board of Education
Baltimore	Nominates	Takes no action	Appoints ¹
Washington	Nominates	Approves	Appoints
New Orleans	Nominates	Recommends	Appoints
Cleveland	Appoints	Approves	Approves
Cincinnati	Appoints	Approves	Approves
Chicago	Nominates	Recommends	Appoints
Detroit	Recommends	Recommends	Appoints ²
Milwaukee	Recommends	Employs	Approves
Minneapolis	Nominates	Approves	Appoints
St. Louis	Recommends	Approves	Appoints
San Francisco		Takes no action	Employs ³
Los Angeles	Recommends	Recommends	Appoints

(b) SECOND CLASS CITIES

Cambridge	Recommends	Nominates	Approves ⁴
Fall River	Takes no action	Nominates	Elects
Lowell *	Recommends	Approves	Appoints
Worcester	Recommends	Appoints	Approves
Providence	Nominates	Examines into	Appoints ⁵
Bridgeport	Recommends	Recommends	Appoints
New Haven	Appoints	Takes no action	May reject ⁶
Albany	Recommends	No committee	Appoints
Rochester	Nominates	No committee	Appoints ⁷
Syracuse	Nominates	Recommends	Appoints
Jersey City	Reports candidates	Recommends	Elects
Paterson	Recommends	Recommends	Appoints
Scranton	Recommends	Approves	Appoints

* Data not confirmed by the superintendent.

¹ The board of superintendents approves the nominations of elementary school teachers.

² The mayor approves the appointment of teachers.

³ The superintendent is a member of the board of education, and hence has a part in the employment of teachers.

⁴ The rules require that the committee on instruction nominate candidates "after hearing recommendations from the Superintendent and the principal of the school in which the candidate is to serve." — *Rules*, 1912, sec. 610.

⁵ There is a different committee on teachers for the elementary and high schools, each examines into the qualifications of teachers for its respective schools.

⁶ "Any appointment by the Superintendent may be rejected by a vote of five members of the Board, but not later than the time of the next regular meeting after such appointment." — *Rules*, 1910, Sec. 41.

⁷ Superintendent and principal act jointly in nominating teachers.

Cities	Superintendent	Committee of Board	Board of Education
Richmond	Recommends	Nominates	Elects
Atlanta	Nominates	Approves	Confirms ¹
Louisville	Recommends	Recommends	Appoints
Memphis	Nominates	Recommends	Appoints ²
Nashville	Takes no action	Takes no action	Elects ³
Birmingham	Nominates	Approves	Elects
Columbus	Appoints	Examines into	Confirms
Dayton	Appoints	Inquire as to	Confirms
Toledo *	Appoints		Confirms ⁴
Indianapolis	Appoints	Takes no action	May reject
Grand Rapids	Nominates	Nominates	Appoints ⁵
St. Paul	Recommends	Appoints	Confirms
Omaha	Recommends	Nominates	Appoints
Kansas City	Nominates	Reports on	Appoints
Denver		Nominates	Appoints ⁶
Seattle	Recommends	Takes no action	Appoints
Portland	Nominates	Takes no action	Appoints ⁷
Oakland	Compiles list	Selects	Approves

(c) THIRD CLASS CITIES

Portland	Nominates	Approves	Appoints
Manchester	Nominates	Recommends	Appoints ⁸
Burlington	Appoints	Advises	Approves ⁹
Wilmington	Nominates	Advises	Appoints
Wheeling	Takes no action	Chooses teachers	Confirms

* Data not confirmed by the superintendent.

¹ "Superintendent of Schools is supposed to nominate applicants. During the last three or four years the Superintendent was not allowed to have the teachers he wished." — Letter of January 16, 1914.

² It is not clear whether the superintendent and committee act jointly or consecutively.

³ A board member nominates, and the board elects.

⁴ The appointment of teachers is not mentioned under duties of committee on education.

⁵ The superintendent and the educational committee act jointly.

⁶ Data incomplete; correct as far as stated.

⁷ Any member of the board may also nominate a teacher.

⁸ Superintendent says in letter: "Superintendent by rule nominates; in practice the sub-committee may recommend anybody. They are not confined to the Superintendent's nominee."

⁹ Superintendent says: "Superintendent appoints with advice of Committee on Teachers and Instruction."

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Cities	Superintendent	Committee of Board	Board of Education
Charlotte	Takes no action	Nominates	Appoints ¹
Charleston	Takes no action	Furnishes a list	Elects ²
Jacksonville	Nominates	No committee	Appoints
Meridian	Recommends	No committee	Appoints
San Antonio *	Recommends	Approves	Appoints
Little Rock	Nominates	Appoints	Approves
Oklahoma	Recommends	Approves	Appoints
Des Moines	Recommends	Approves	Appoints
Fargo	Nominates	No data	Appoints
Sioux Falls	Recommends	No committee	Elects
Kansas City	Nominates	Recommends	Appoints
Butte	Recommends	Nominates	Appoints
Cheyenne	Recommends	Recommends	Appoints ³
Albuquerque	Nominates	Takes no action	Appoints ⁴
Tucson	Nominates	No committee	Appoints
Salt Lake	Nominates	Approves	Appoints
Reno	Recommends	No committee	Appoints
Boise	Nominates	Approves	Appoints

* Data not confirmed by the Superintendent.

TYPES OF PROCEDURE IN APPOINTING TEACHERS

The Method in Each City Classified as a Unit. Since boards, voluntarily or as required by law, delegate varying degrees of their authority for making appointments to committees of their own members and to superintendents, it is impossible, within the limits of this study, to determine the precise amount of authority exercised by each appointive agency. For our purpose the most feasible method of classifying methods of appointment is one based on the method of procedure in each city considered as a unit. This basis of classification obviates the necessity of considering the

¹ "The Superintendent and the Assistant Superintendent are advisory members of the Committee." — From a letter.

² The superintendent as such takes no action; he is a member of the examining board which furnishes a list of candidates.

³ The superintendent and a committee act jointly in recommending teachers.

⁴ Data as furnished by superintendent; rules provide for committee action.

relative amount of official authority exercised by the agencies involved, and considers the method of procedure in each city as a complete process.

Classes Defined: C, B, and A. The different methods of procedure can be classified into three large classes, according to the apparent extent of the superintendent's official participation in the procedure of making appointments. In Class C the superintendent does not participate in the appointment of teachers. In Class B the superintendent takes the initial step in making the appointments by nominating or recommending candidates. In Class A the superintendent makes the appointments, subject to varying degrees of supervision by the board and one of its committees.

Types Defined: 1 to 9. In each of the above classes three distinct types of procedure are distinguishable. These types are based on the apparent extent of the board's or the committee's official participation in the making of appointments. The following statements will make clear the definition of the three classes and of the nine types.

CLASS C

The superintendent does not officially participate in the appointment of teachers. The board, or a committee of the board and the board, make the appointments.

Type 1. The board makes the appointments.

Type 2. A committee of the board takes the initial step and the board makes the appointment.

Type 3. A committee of the board makes the appointments, subject to approval by the board.

CLASS B

The superintendent takes the initial step in making an appointment, and the board, or a committee of the board and the board, complete the appointment.

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- Type 4.¹ The superintendent takes the initial step, and the board makes the appointment.
- Type 5. The superintendent takes the initial step, a committee of the board approves the action, and the board makes the appointment.
- Type 6. The superintendent takes the initial step, a committee of the board makes the appointment, subject to approval by the board.

CLASS A

The superintendent makes the appointment, and a committee of the board and the board consecutively confirm it, or the board alone approves it, or the appointment is effective without confirmation.

- Type 7. The superintendent makes the appointment and the board approves it.
- Type 8. The superintendent makes the appointment, a committee of the board approves it, and the board confirms it.
- Type 9. The superintendent makes the appointment, subject only to rejection by the board.

CLASSIFICATION OF CITIES ACCORDING TO CLASSES AND TYPES OF PROCEDURE

CLASS C

The superintendent does not officially participate in the appointment of teachers. The board, or a committee of the board and the board, make the appointments.

The distinctive feature of the cities in Class C is that the boards do not voluntarily, nor are they required by law to,

¹ For convenience in discussion, the types of appointment are numbered consecutively from 1 to 9.

delegate any authority to the superintendent of schools in the appointment of teachers. It is possible that by common consent the superintendent has some influence in the selection of teachers. The rules which establish the legal procedure of the board do not mention the superintendent in the appointment of teachers, hence he cannot officially and legally participate in such appointments. In the cities in Class C appointment is made exclusively by a lay board of education, or by a committee of the board consisting of lay members. Following is a classification of cities in Class C according to Types 1, 2, and 3.

Type 1. *The board makes the appointments.*

NASHVILLE

Nashville is the only city covered by our study which practices this method of appointment. The rule on appointment of teachers is as follows:

Applicants for positions as teachers shall be placed in nomination by a member of the Board. Members of the Board may from the floor, state anything for or against an applicant; but it shall not be in order for anyone, directly or indirectly, to solicit the vote of a member for an applicant while the Board is in session.¹

The rules defining the duties of the superintendent do not mention the appointment of teachers. The rules do give him the authority to "nominate his clerk, and janitors to the board." Further, the rules give to the superintendent the thankless task of suspending "teachers from service for neglect of duty or violation of prescribed rules."

A logical distribution of authority and responsibility requires that the power to suspend teachers be lodged in the same agency which exercises the power to appoint teachers. Then the allegiance of teachers is not divided, and the

¹ *Rules, 1911, chap. v, sec. 6.*

public can hold the proper agency accountable for the kind of teachers appointed. With the board responsible for the appointing of teachers and the superintendent responsible for discharging ineffective ones, there is no way of holding either to account. The prevailing tendency in American cities is to hold the superintendent responsible for the instruction in the schools; but to do this in Nashville would be a grave injustice to the superintendent, who is in no way responsible for the kind of teachers who are appointed.

Type 2. A committee of the board takes the initial step¹ and the board makes the appointment.

The following cities employ this method: Fall River, Charlotte, N. C., and Charleston, S. C.

FALL RIVER

The rules of the school committee do not mention the superintendent of schools in describing the appointment of teachers. Under "examination and election of teachers" is the following²:

A majority vote of the whole Board shall be necessary to elect or remove a teacher, and each sub-committee on visitation shall have the power to nominate teachers for its respective schools.

The board consists of nine members and is divided into "three sub-committees on visitation of three members each." To "each of the three committees on visitation" is assigned "a section of the schools for visitation and general care." These sub-committees nominate teachers to the school committee.

¹ *I.e.*, the committee nominates, or recommends, or takes some other similar action.

² *Rules*, 1909, sec. 36.

CHARLESTON, S. C.

In Charleston the examining board consists of the chairman of the board of education, the superintendent, and two principals in rotation, and at least one member of the standing committee on examination. This board

reports only the first three competitors who have attained a general average of seventy-five per cent or over, and one from the said three shall be chosen by the Board to fill the vacancy.

According to the superintendent the above

provision applies only to the grade schools. In the high school, the appointment of a teacher is left practically to the Superintendent of Schools, the Principal of the School and the Commissioner of the School, such appointment being subject to confirmation by the Board.¹

The rules do not provide for this arrangement. The superintendent, as a member of the examining board, in an indirect way participates in making the appointment. The rules give him no official authority other than as a member of the examining board.

Historically boards of education have always found it difficult to perform executive functions and have been compelled by force of circumstances to delegate the discharge of such functions. The boards in the cities of this type have thought it desirable or have found it necessary to delegate to a standing committee of their own members the functions of nominating candidates for teaching positions. Since ordinarily such nominees are appointed by the board without discussion, it is clear that a nomination by a committee virtually means an appointment. The foregoing is an early form of delegating executive functions to executive officers chosen by the board.

¹ In a letter dated April 25, 1913.

Type 3. *A committee of the board makes the appointments, subject to approval by the board.*

WHEELING, W. VA.

The only city operating under this method of appointing teachers is Wheeling, W. Va. According to the superintendent,¹ "Appointments are made ordinarily by the Commissioners of sub-districts," subject to confirmation by the board. The board consists of twenty-one members elected by the people from sub-districts which do not exactly coincide with the wards of the city. There is a standing committee of the board for each sub-district. It is this committee which appoints the teachers for the schools within its district. The foregoing makes it clear that teachers are not appointed in Wheeling by a central authority which is at least theoretically responsible for education in the city, but they are appointed by a small committee which is in charge of the schools within a district.

The board of education in each city in Class C has employed a superintendent of schools. In its rules each board has charged the superintendent with the supervision of the schools, with assisting teachers in their work, and with the promotion of educational progress in the city; and yet the board has made it impossible for the superintendent to be much more than a clerk of the board, by denying him any participation in the appointment of teachers.

The boards have charged the superintendents with large responsibilities and have not given them the logical and necessary authority for discharging those responsibilities. They have made the superintendents responsible for instruction, and have given them no authority to exercise any control over instruction except after teachers are ap-

¹ In a letter dated July 1, 1913.

pointed. The most effective method of securing good teachers is to be sure that none but good teachers are employed in the first instance. A superintendent cannot justly be held responsible for the character of work done by teachers whom he would not have appointed.

A superintendent who is qualified to be charged with the responsibility of maintaining a high grade of instruction in the schools is certainly better qualified to appoint teachers than is a board of education of laymen or a committee of such a board. This has been the experience of cities generally. Most cities have long passed out of the historical stage in which these cities are found to-day in respect to appointing teachers. These cities are not far removed from the old system of appointing teachers by a prudential committee which prevailed generally a little less than a century ago in New England.

CLASS B

The superintendent takes the initial step¹ in making an appointment, and the board, or a committee of the board and the board, complete the appointment.

The cities in class B are characterized particularly by the fact that the superintendent takes the initial step in the process leading to the appointment of teachers. This class differs from Class C in the fact that in Class C the superintendent does not officially participate in the appointment of teachers.

Cities in Class B are similar to cities in Class A (discussion of which is to follow) in the fact that the superintendent initiates the process of appointment in both cases. Cities in Class B differ from those in Class A in the fact that in Class B the superintendent only nominates or recommends

¹ *I.e.*, the superintendent nominates or recommends candidates, or takes some similar action.

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candidates and the board does the appointing, while in Class A the superintendent appoints the teachers.

Following is a classification of the cities in Class B arranged according to Types 4, 5, and 6.

Type 4. The superintendent takes the initial step, and the board makes the appointment.

The following are the cities:

First Class	Second Class	Third Class
Pittsburgh	Albany	Jacksonville, Fla.
Baltimore	Rochester	Meridian, Miss.
	Seattle	Albuquerque, N. M.
	Portland, Ore. ¹	Sioux Falls, S.D.
		Tucson, Ariz.
		Reno, Nev.

PITTSBURGH

The superintendent

shall, when a vacancy occurs in the teaching force, recommend to the Board a person for such vacancy, and he shall fill such vacancy temporarily, from some source of supply, until appointment thereto is made by the Board.²

This is a clearly defined procedure, and fixes definitely on the superintendent the responsibility for recommending candidates, and on the board the responsibility for making the appointment.

The procedure is further defined by the following rule:

No teacher shall receive an appointment in the Schools of Pittsburgh who is not recommended to the Board by the Superintendent of Schools.³

By this provision the superintendent is made responsible for the appointment of every teacher who enters the school

¹ It is uncertain whether Portland, Ore., should be classified here or under Type 1.

² *Rules* (no date), art. viii, sec. 15.

³ *Ibid.*, art. vii, sec. 14.

system. The board alone cannot select teachers; the superintendent must take the initiative. The board could force the superintendent to appoint its candidates by continuously refusing to appoint the persons recommended by the superintendent. However, few boards would be willing to bear so grave and so definitely fixed a responsibility.

ROCHESTER

The Superintendent and the principal of the school constitute a Board on nomination of teachers for such school from the first twenty-five names on the eligible list for teachers, . . . The Board of Education must consider such nominations and upon approval appoint the person so nominated.¹

The principal is thus properly recognized as the responsible head of his school, and is given authority in the appointment of teachers so that he can be held to account for the instruction given.

In Meridian, Miss., as in so many of the smaller cities, the *Manual of Government* of the schools does not define the procedure of appointing teachers. According to the superintendent,

teachers are appointed to positions in the Meridian Public Schools by the Board of Trustees on the advice of the Superintendent based upon the application and endorsements of candidates.²

The classification of the other third class cities under this type is based on similar information obtained from school documents or the superintendent. In any case my statement of facts has been confirmed by the superintendent.

This type of appointment has a distinct advantage over any preceding type, because the superintendent has some control over the appointment of teachers for whose work he is inevitably held more or less responsible. Further, in the larger cities, the board is required to consider the super-

¹ Provision of City Charter, chap. 755, sec. 400.

² In a letter dated April 28, 1913.

intendent's nominations. This type of appointment is not very different from Type 7, discussed later, in which the superintendent makes the appointments, subject to approval by the board. With the superintendent exclusively making the nominations, they practically constitute appointments.

Type 5. The superintendent takes the initial step, a committee of the board approves¹ the action, and the board makes the appointment.

This type is similar to Type 4, except that in this case a committee of the board is introduced into the procedure, which committee approves the nominations or recommendations of the superintendent. In this type the board still appears to exercise officially the more important function of appointing the teachers. In this type, as in the former, boards are, in many cases, enjoined to consider the nominations or recommendations of the superintendent. In such cases we may legitimately raise the question, Of what value is it to have the nominations pass through the hands of a committee for approval? Especially should this question be considered in such a case as Kansas City, Kan., where the superintendent is held strictly to account for every nomination made. More cities belong to this type than to any other. They are as follows:

First Class	Second Class	Third Class
New York ²	Cambridge	Portland, Ore.
Newark	Lowell	Manchester, N. H.
Washington	Providence	Wilmington, Del.
New Orleans	Bridgeport	San Antonio, Tex.
Chicago	Syracuse	Oklahoma, Okla.
Detroit	Jersey City	Des Moines, Ia.

¹ Includes nominates, recommends, examines into, reports on, and all similar action taken by a committee.

² The superintendent is chairman of the board of superintendents which make the nominations.

First Class	Second Class	Third Class
Minneapolis	Paterson	Fargo, N. D. ¹
St. Louis	Scranton	Kansas City, Kan.
Los Angeles	Richmond	Butte, Mont.
	Atlanta	Cheyenne, Wyo.
	Louisville	Salt Lake, Utah
	Memphis	Boise, Ida.
	Birmingham	
	Grand Rapids	
	Omaha	
	Kansas City, Mo.	
	Spokane	

Obviously it will be impracticable as well as unnecessary to analyze the rules in each of the above cities. The cities selected for consideration illustrate the type or some special feature to which it seems desirable to call attention.

NEWARK

All appointments, promotions and transfers of teachers shall be made by the Board on recommendation of the Committee on Instruction and Educational Supplies and by them from a list of eligible candidates presented by the City Superintendent, who shall make definite recommendation from the list for each appointment, promotion or transfer. The Superintendent's recommendation shall be based upon experience, merit, and fitness, to be ascertained so far as possible from the official records in possession of the Board of Education.²

The above is one of the most complete definitions of the method of making an appointment to be found in the rules which have come within our study. The parts played by the board, by the committee, and by the superintendent are clearly stated. Responsibility is definitely fixed.

WASHINGTON

No appointment, promotion, transfer or dismissal of any director, supervising principal, principal, head of department, teacher or any

¹ There is a committee on teachers, and it is assumed that it participates in the appointment, although the facts at hand do not necessarily prove that fact.

² *Rules*, sec. 17, p. 341. *Annual Report*, 1910-11. Also *Rules*, sec. 19, p. 301. *Ibid.*

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other subordinate to the Superintendent of Schools shall be made by the Board of Education, except upon the written recommendation of the Superintendent of Schools.¹

The rules provide that

nominations made by the Superintendent for the appointment . . . of . . . teachers . . . shall, unless otherwise ordered, be referred to said Committee,² which shall report the same to the Board of Education with recommendations as to approval or disapproval.³

The superintendent is exclusively charged by law with the power of recommending candidates for teaching positions, and the board is prevented by the same law from selecting teachers without his recommendation. In such cases the superintendent's recommendation practically means an appointment.

Just what significance the committee's approval has with the board is largely a matter of conjecture, because such a matter could be determined only by personal investigation. In view of the law it is difficult to see what the legal function of the committee can be. The law requires the board to make the appointments, and in so doing to consider the recommendations of the superintendent. Whether the board can by rule delegate either of the above functions to a committee of its own members is a legal question which it is not within our province to settle. At any rate, the board does not escape responsibility and accountability by delegating the discharge of such functions. In the delegation of such functions the danger is that the board will become merely a rubber stamp, and will not supervise the acts of the superintendent or of the committee closely enough to insure their best action.

¹ Laws, 1906, sec. 2, no. 254.

² *I.e.*, committee on elementary and night schools; the same provision is made for committee on the high schools in the appointment of high school teachers.

³ By-Laws (not dated), art. vi, sec. ii.

CHICAGO

The Superintendent shall make nominations in writing for all vacant positions in the Education Department to the Committee on School Management, which shall report the same to the Board for approval.¹

The function of the committee seems to be merely a means of transmitting the nomination of the superintendent to the board of education. It is to be noted that the rule does not provide for any action, either of approval or disapproval, by the committee. According to a statement² in a communication from the superintendent, the committee plays practically no part in making appointments.

JERSEY CITY

(c) Whenever any position becomes vacant, or a position has been created, the Superintendent shall, on the request of the Committee on Teachers and Salaries, report to this Committee the name of the person who shall be first on the list of those eligible to appointment to such position. . . . This Committee shall recommend the person so reported to the Board for appointment. The Board shall thereupon elect such person to the position which has become vacant or which has been created.³

This is another clear definition of procedure. The following facts should be noted: (a) the committee asks the superintendent to nominate a candidate; (b) the superintendent reports the name of the first person on the list; (c) the committee is required to recommend this person to the board for appointment; (d) the board is required to elect such a person. This procedure makes inevitable the appointment by the board of the person reported by the superintendent to be at the head of the list of eligible candidates. Two matters are to be especially observed:

¹ *Rules*, 1910, chap. ii, art. ii, sec. 10.

² "The Board elects those recommended by the Superintendent."

³ From *Abstract of the Rules*, 1913, art. liii (c).

(1) that the committee acts only as an intermediary and plays no vital function, and (2) the preparation of the merit list of candidates becomes of more significance than the procedure in making appointments.

GRAND RAPIDS

The Educational Committee shall have general supervision of the schools and together with the superintendent shall:

- (a) Examine candidates for teachers. . . .
- (b) Nominate teachers and recommend salaries to be paid.¹

The exceptional provision is that the superintendent and the committee are required to act jointly instead of consecutively in nominating teachers.

MANCHESTER, N. H.

When an additional teacher is required . . . the Superintendent shall nominate to the sub-committee of that school . . . one or more persons qualified for the position or positions to be filled, which sub-committee shall report to the Board such person or persons as it deems best fitted for the position . . . and the Board shall then proceed to a choice by ballot if more than one candidate is nominated. . . .²

In this city the committee is a sub-committee of a school, and not a committee on appointments for all schools. Responsibility for the appointment of teachers in this city is distributed between the superintendent of schools, twenty-one sub-committees of three members each (one for each school in the city), and the board of education. The superintendent states that the sub-committee does not always approve the superintendent's nominees; it selects candidates on its own initiative. This procedure is a fine illustration of undesirable dispersion of authority in the appointment of teachers and the concomitant result of no one being accountable.

¹ *Rules*, 1913, sec. 31.

² *Rules*, 1912, chap. iii, sec. 3.

KANSAS CITY, KAN.

Under the duties of the committee on teachers and salaries, the rules provide, among other things, as follows:

They shall recommend to the Board for appointment all said employees, provided that no person shall be elected as supervisor, supervising principal, teacher, census taker, teachers' examiner, or office assistant of the Educational department, except upon the initiative and the written recommendation of the Superintendent of Schools to the Chairman of the Committee on Teachers and Salaries.¹

Further, under duties of the superintendent, we find this interesting provision:

The Board shall hold the Superintendent directly responsible for all nominations made by him, and in the selection of teachers and other employees, he shall be guided strictly by the merits and by the By-Laws and the "Rules and Regulations" of the Board, and shall hold himself absolutely free and independent from all influences to the contrary.²

The rules make it the duty of the superintendent to initiate the process of appointing teachers by making written recommendations of candidates; no doubt many boards try to hold the superintendent responsible for his nominations, but few have defined that responsibility in such specific and unmistakable terms as has this city.

Type 6. *The superintendent takes the initial step, a committee of the board makes the appointment, subject to approval by the board.*

This type differs from the preceding type in this important respect: the committee and not the board selects the teachers. The centre of gravity in making appointments has passed from the board to a committee of its members.

¹ *Rules*, 1908-9, sec. xi (2).

² *Ibid.*, sec. vii (8).

The cities are as follows:

First Class	Second Class	Third Class
Philadelphia	Worcester	Little Rock, Ark.
Milwaukee	St. Paul	
	Oakland	

PHILADELPHIA

Under duties of committees the rules provide:

Whenever it shall become necessary to elect a supervising principal, principal or assistant teacher in any of the elementary schools other than those named in By-Laws III, Section 8,¹ kindergartner, teacher of sewing or cooking, or other official named in By-Laws III, Sections 5 & 7,² the Committee shall make its choice from the proper eligible list (see Rule XXV, Eligibility of Election), or from the nominees of the Superintendent of Schools, and shall report the same to the Board for its approval.³

The committee selects the teachers and merely reports the same to the board.

The above rule also clearly gives the committee the option between choosing candidates from the proper eligible list or from the nominees of the superintendent. But to confirm the practice in this, the following question was addressed to the superintendent: "May the committee disregard the superintendent's nomination?" The answer was "Yes."

Under duties of the superintendent the rules provide:

He shall keep in his office eligible lists of certified teachers and principals arranged as nearly as possible in the order of rank or standing; and no person shall be appointed to any educational position, other than those specified in the school law, whose name does

¹ By-Law iii covers the duties of the superintendent of schools. Sec. 8 provides that the superintendent "shall nominate to the Committee on Special Schools" suitable persons for teachers in the trade schools and evening schools and of so-called special subjects.

² Sec. 5 refers to the superintendent's nomination of associate and district superintendents, directors of special branches, *et al.* Sec. 7 defines the superintendent's duty in nominating elementary school teachers.

³ *Rules*, 1911, xv, sec. 2.

not appear among the three highest names upon the proper eligible list.¹

The new school law² referred to does not require that principals or teachers in either the normal or high schools be selected from eligible lists.

The provision for the appointment of high school teachers needs some preliminary explanation. There are two separate committees in charge of the high schools: the committee on normal school, high school for girls and classifications of teachers, and the committee on the central high school, and manual training high schools for boys. They act jointly in selecting teachers, as the following rule indicates:

The Committee [on Normal School, etc.] shall act in conjunction with the Committee on Central High School and Manual Training High Schools for Boys in all the following named matters, and such action as may be taken shall be the joint action of the two Committees, subject to approval by the Board, viz., (a) the election of principals, members of the teaching force . . . , etc.³

The duty of the superintendent in the appointment of high school teachers is defined as follows:

He shall inform the Committee of his views in relation to the qualifications of the persons who may apply to the respective Committees for election as teachers in said schools, and shall indicate the choice that, in his judgment, should be made by the Committee or Committees. He shall be invited to all meetings of all such Committees for the purpose of affording advice and counsel.⁴

From the above it is clear that the board has gone only as far as the law required it to go in giving the superintendent authority in the appointment of teachers. His real authority is limited even in the nomination of elementary school teachers, because the committee may ignore his nominations. Clearly the official authority of the

¹ By-Law iii, sec. 14.

² *New School Code*, 1911, sec. 2229.

³ By-Laws xix, sec. 5.

⁴ By-Law iii, sec. 16.

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superintendent in the appointment of high school teachers is small. His influence in either case will depend largely on his personal force and tact, and on the character of the committees with which he has to deal. If the committees are willing to take his advice and counsel, he may participate in making the appointments. If, however, for any reason, the committee choose to ignore the superintendent, they are protected in their action by the rules of the board. Instead of the rules protecting the superintendent in the discharge of an important professional function, they defend the independence of the committee. Further, such dispersion of authority for the appointment of teachers among several different committees of the board makes the maintenance of satisfactory professional standards extremely difficult, and also makes the fixing of the responsibility for appointments almost, if not quite, impossible.

MILWAUKEE

The employment, classification, transfer and promotion of teachers, shall be done by the Committee [on Examination and Promotion] upon the recommendation of the Superintendent, subject to approval by the Board, special consideration being given to merit and length of service.¹

The rules also provide that the appointments shall be "on a strict basis of eligibility and fitness."

The examination of teachers shall be conducted by the Superintendent of Schools and his assistants, and the results presented to the Committee for their action.

WORCESTER

The Committee on Teachers shall appoint teachers in the primary and grammar grades in the day schools, and make such transfers as it may deem advisable, subject to the approval of the School Committee. . . .²

The Committee on High Schools shall have general charge of the

¹ *Rules*, 1909, art. xiv, sec. 3. Also in *Laws of 1907*, chap. 459, sec. 9.

² *Rules*, chap. iv, sec. 2.

day High Schools. It shall be the duty of this Committee to recommend for appointment all teachers in these schools. All transfers of teachers in these schools shall be made by this Committee, subject to the approval of the School Committee. All certificates of qualification in these schools shall be given by this Committee.¹

Under duties of the superintendent the rules provide that

He shall keep a list of applicants for schools and a record of such facts as may be known to him respecting their character, experience and qualifications, and shall recommend to the proper committees teachers for nomination.²

According to a statement made by a member of the Worcester school committee, in a public address,

The City employs between seven and eight hundred teachers, most of whom teach in the elementary schools. In sheer self-defence the Committee has had to adopt rules governing the appointment of this more numerous class. Positions in the elementary schools are now upon a strictly civil service basis. . . . But a very important department remains to be accounted for, — the high schools. The rules of the School Committee give to the sub-committees on high schools practical control of all matters pertaining to those schools. . . . Now, in the selection of teachers the Committee on High Schools has an absolutely free hand. It has not even made rules for its own governance. If it chose to recommend an inmate of a home for the feeble minded it would have a perfect right to do so.³

ST. PAUL

It shall be the duty of the Committee on schools to appoint all teachers in the public schools, and to fill all vacancies, except as heretofore mentioned,⁴ giving consideration to the recommendations of the Superintendents of Schools, and to report the same to the Board for confirmation at the first regular meeting thereafter.⁵

¹ *Rules*, chap. iv, sec. 12.

² *Ibid.*, chap. ii, sec. 4.

³ *Sixth Annual Report*, 1911, the Public Education Association of Worcester, pp. 14-15.

⁴ This refers to the authority given to the superintendent to fill temporarily any vacancies. Sec. 62.

⁵ By-Laws of the board of school inspectors, in *Biennial Report for 1908-10*, p. 302.

OAKLAND

The Committee on Teachers, from the lists compiled by the Superintendent, shall select the teachers who are in the judgment of said Committee, best qualified to fill positions in the Oakland School Department.¹

It is made the duty of the City Superintendent of Schools to gather full and complete information, so far as possible, in reference to each and every applicant for a position in the Department. . . . He shall make his recommendations to the Committee on Teachers. . . .²

Boards of education in cities in Class B have found it desirable or necessary to delegate in part the discharge of the responsibility for the appointment of teachers. In some cities in Class B the board has voluntarily, or as required by law, delegated to the superintendent of schools the authority to nominate candidates. It has been provided, in some cases, that a committee shall approve the nominations of the superintendent before the board makes the appointments; in other cities the committee appoints the teachers on the superintendent's nomination, subject to approval by the board. By far the most common method of appointment found in this investigation is one in which the superintendent nominates candidates, the committee on teachers approves, and the board appoints the candidates.

In most cases it is difficult to see what beneficial or essential function the committee performs by approving the nominations of the superintendent. For example, what is the importance of the committee's action, (a) when the board is required by law to consider the nominations of the superintendent³; (b) when the committee neither approves nor disapproves the nominations, but acts only as an intermediary for transmitting the nominations of the superintendent to the board⁴; (c) when the board is required by

¹ Circular on rules governing the selection of teachers, 1909, sec. 8.

² *Ibid.*, sec. 7.

³ For example, see Washington, p. 55.

⁴ For example, see Chicago, p. 57.

the rules or by law to appoint the first candidate on the appropriate eligible list¹; (d) when the board is not permitted to select teachers unless they are nominated or recommended by the superintendent?²

The appointment of teachers by a committee of the board cannot be justified according to any reasonably effective principles of successful school administration. The division of authority and the accompanying dispersion of responsibility which it entails make strict accountability impossible. This is well illustrated by the situation in Philadelphia already described.

CLASS A

The superintendent makes the appointment, and a committee of the board and the board confirm it, or the board alone approves it, or the appointment is effective without confirmation.

The chief characteristic of the methods of appointment in the cities in Class A is that the superintendent makes the appointments, subject to varying degrees of approval by the board, or by its committee, or by both. The centre of gravity in making the appointments has been transferred from the board to the superintendent. This transfer of authority for appointment has been so complete in the case of Type 9 that the board has no positive authority in appointing teachers; it can only reject appointments made by the superintendent. The board's authority is negative, not positive. Following is a classification of cities in Class A arranged according to Types 7, 8, and 9.

Type 7. *The superintendent makes the appointment and the board approves it.*

Of the seventy-three cities covered in this study, Boston and Toledo are the only ones belonging to this type.

¹ For example, see Jersey City, p. 58.

² For example, see Pittsburgh, p. 50, and Kansas City, Kan., p. 60.

Under the definition of the duties of the superintendent, the Boston rules provide:

He shall, subject to the approval of the Board, appoint, reappoint, and remove all members of the supervising staff and teachers: provided that in the original appointment of subordinate teachers, he shall consult the principal of the school or district and the assistant Superintendent in charge thereof, or the director of the special department, if the appointment is in that department.¹

It is to be pointed out that in these two cities no committee action intervenes between appointment by the superintendent and approval by the board; also that in Boston the subordinate administrative officers are consulted in making original appointments to service. The superintendent is responsible for every appointment made, because he makes them.

Type 8. *The superintendent makes the appointment, a committee of the board approves it, and the board confirms it.*

This type differs from the preceding one in that a committee approves the appointments of the superintendent before they go to the board for confirmation. This method of appointment is found in the following cities:

First Class	Second Class	Third Class
Cleveland	Columbus	Burlington
Cincinnati	Dayton	

Four of these cities are in Ohio. Obviously this uniformity in methods of appointment is due to the provisions of the state law,² defining the duties of the superintendent of schools. In view of this agreement in methods of appointment, the rules of only one city in Ohio will be presented.

¹ *Rules*, 1912, chap. vi, sec. 105.

² *School Laws*, 1912, chap. iii, sec. 7703.

COLUMBUS

Under duties of the superintendent the rules provide:

He shall appoint, subject to the approval and confirmation of the Board, all teachers, and may for cause suspend any person thus appointed until the Board or a Committee of the Board considers such suspension, but no one shall be dismissed by the Board except as provided by Statute.¹ The Board may, by a three-fourths vote of its full membership, reappoint any teacher whom the Superintendent refuses to appoint.²

Under duties of committees on teachers the rules provide:

This Committee shall inquire carefully into the character and qualifications of each person appointed by the Superintendent for a position as teacher, and must have a list of appointments at least two weeks before their confirmation.³

Type 9. *The superintendent makes the appointment, subject only to rejection by the board.*

This type differs from all others in the fact that the board has no positive authority in the appointment of teachers. It can only exercise the power of rejecting appointments made by the superintendent. New Haven and Indianapolis use this method.

NEW HAVEN

Under duties of superintendent the rules in New Haven provide:

He shall appoint from those eligible under the rules of the Board, all principals, assistants, and teachers necessary to fill positions authorized by the Board.

(b) He shall report at each meeting of the Board all appointments and dismissals made by him since the previous meetings.

¹ *I.e.*, dismissal can be only on basis of written charges, and after the teacher has been given an opportunity for defence before the board or its committee, and only on a majority vote of the full membership of the board. — *Laws of 1912*, sec. 7701.

² *Rules*, 1913, sec. 213.

³ *Rules*, 1912, sec. 96.

(c) Any appointment by the Superintendent may be rejected by a vote of five members of the Board, but not later than the time of the next regular meeting after such appointment.

(f) In order to acquire full knowledge affecting . . . appointments, it is the wish of the Board that the Superintendent shall give to each member of the Board one week's notice in writing before such appointment . . . shall become effectual.¹

INDIANAPOLIS

In Indianapolis, under duties of the superintendent, the rules provide:

He shall make all appointments of . . . teachers and report the same to the Board at the next regular meeting, and from the date of such appointment as announced the same shall be in full force subject to the disapproval of the Board by a four-fifths vote of all its members: such vote to be taken not later than the regular meeting next succeeding the regular meeting at which said appointments shall have been reported.²

The feature of the appointment in these two cities is the amount of authority given the superintendent. Appointments are effective without the approval of the board. The board may reject the appointments at its first meeting after they were made, but only by five out of seven votes in New Haven and four out of five votes in Indianapolis. Thus the board has sufficient supervisory authority to protect itself and to see that the superintendent does his duty. On the other hand, the superintendent has authority in the appointment of teachers commensurate with his responsibility for the character of the instruction in the schools.

Denver, Col., Buffalo, N. Y., and San Francisco, Cal., have not been classified under any of the above types for the following reasons: The information furnished by the superintendent in Denver was incomplete, and it came so

¹ *Rules*, 1910, sec. 41.

² *Rules*, 1911, art. x, sec. 14.

late that there was not time to supplement it. The rules do not define the part played by the superintendent in making appointments; they do define the parts played by the board and by its committee.

Buffalo has no board of education. Appointments are made by the superintendent of schools from merit lists.

San Francisco also has an exceptional arrangement. The superintendent of schools is a regular member of the board of education and is elected by the people. The other members of the board are appointed by the mayor and are paid to give all their time to the service of education. The board elects the teachers. The rules do not define any particular function which the superintendent performs in the appointment of teachers other than as a member of the board.

CHAPTER III

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE METHODS OF APPOINTING TEACHERS

IN the previous chapter we presented the detailed facts concerning each of the three classes and each of the nine types of appointment and classified seventy cities accordingly. Each classification was based on rules similar to those quoted, or on information confirmed or furnished by the superintendent. It is the purpose of this chapter to consider the significance of these classes and types of appointment from a larger point of view. For this purpose we shall consider some summary tables and graphs which will show (1) the relative number of cities under each class and type of appointment. Following this we shall consider (2) the significance of our arrangement of classes and types of appointment, and (3) what each appointive agency officially does in making appointments.

THE RELATIVE NUMBER OF CITIES UNDER EACH CLASS AND TYPE OF APPOINTMENT

The following summary table shows the total number of cities in each class of appointment (C, B, and A), the total number of cities by types (1 to 9 inclusive), and the distribution of those cities according to our classification of first, second, and third class cities.

Classes of Appointment	Total No. of Cities by Classes	Types	Total No. of Cities by Types	No. of Cities by Classes (Size)		
				First	Second	Third
C	5	1	1	0	1	0
		2	3	0	1	2
		3	1	0	0	1
			<u>5</u>	0	2	3
B	56	4	12	2	4	6
		5	38	9	17	12
		6	6	2	3	1
			<u>56</u>	13	24	19
A	9	7	2	1	1	0
		8	5	2	2	1
		9	2	0	2	0
			<u>9</u>	3	5	1

SUMMARY OF TOTALS

C	5	0	2	3
B	56	13	24	19
A	<u>9</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>1</u>
Totals	70 ¹	16	31	23

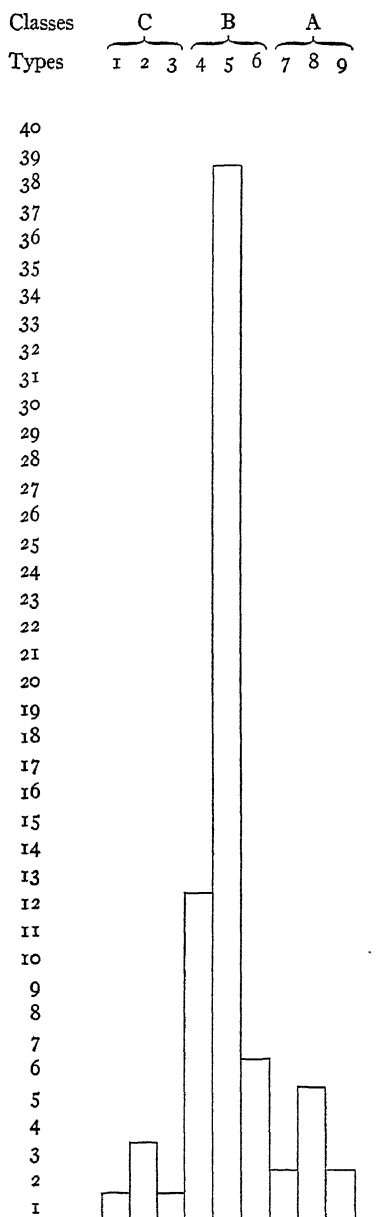
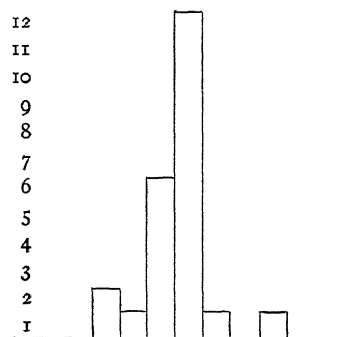
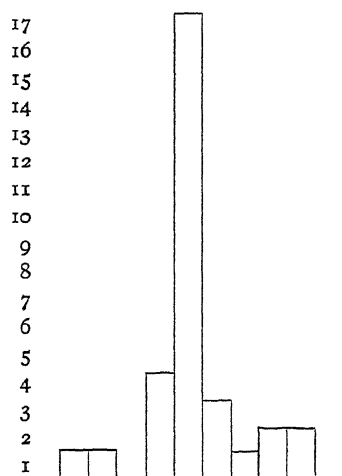
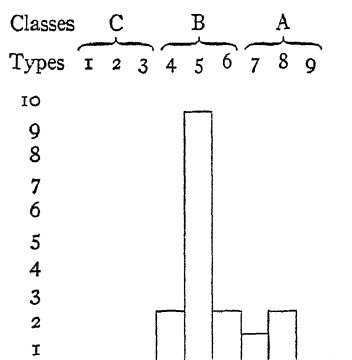
The three graphs at the left on the following page show the distribution, according to classes and types of appointment, of sixteen first class cities, of thirty-one second class cities, and of twenty-three third class cities.

The large graph at the right is a summary of the other three graphs on the same page, and shows the relative number of cities classified under each class and type of appointment.

Each graph shows a striking preference on the part of all classes (sizes) of cities for the Class B method of appointment, and particularly for Type 5 in that class.

¹ Buffalo, San Francisco, and Denver are not included in these or subsequent graphs or tables in this chapter.

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The graphs show:

(1) That there are no first class cities which belong under Class C; *i.e.*, the superintendent participates in the appointment of teachers in all first class cities.

(2) That with one exception there are no third class cities which belong under Class A; *i.e.*, the superintendent does not appoint teachers in third class cities, he nominates candidates.

(3) That, with the above exceptions, each type of appointment is found in practically every class of city; *i.e.*, no one type of appointment predominates, for example, in large cities or in small cities.

(4) That the most common type of appointment in cities of each size is one in which the superintendent nominates the candidate, the committee on teachers approves the nomination, and the board appoints the candidate named.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE ARRANGEMENT OF CLASSES AND TYPES OF APPOINTMENT

The following diagram presents a general view of the various methods of appointing teachers. Classes C, B, and A show, from left to right, increasing authority of the superintendent. The types under each class are arranged from left to right according to the decreasing authority of the board of education. In the type at the left under Class C the board appoints the teacher; in the next type the board shares the process of making appointments with a committee and the superintendent; and in the type at the right the board approves the appointments of the committee. As far as the board is concerned, the arrangement of types in Class B is identical with Class C, and the same general arrangement prevails in Class A.

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CLASS C

Five Cities		
Superintendent does not officially participate		
No committee action	Committee recommends	Committee appoints
Board appoints	Board appoints	Board approves
Type 1 1 City	Type 2 3 Cities	Type 3 1 City

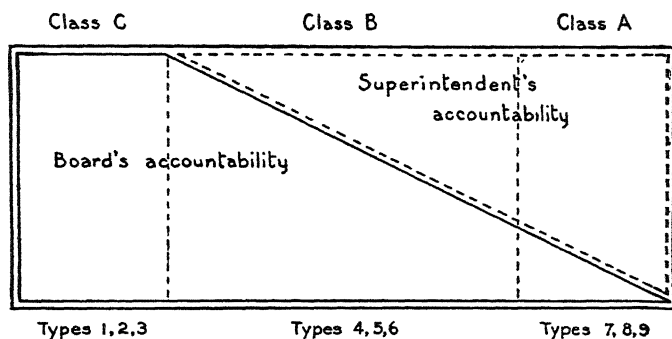
CLASS B

Fifty-six Cities		
Superintendent nominates candidates		
No committee action	Committee recommends	Committee appoints
Board appoints	Board appoints	Board approves
Type 4 12 Cities	Type 5 38 Cities	Type 6 6 Cities

CLASS A

Nine Cities		
Superintendent appoints teachers		
No committee action	Committee recommends	No committee action
Board confirms	Board confirms	Board may reject
Type 7 2 Cities	Type 8 5 Cities	Type 9 2 Cities

The following diagram shows at a glance the general arrangement of the preceding detailed diagram. The inside line bounds the board's responsibility. The outside solid line bounds the board's accountability. The dotted line bounds the accountability of the superintendent of schools.



In general the preceding detailed diagram is so arranged that Classes C, B, and A show a progressively increasing amount of official authority exercised by the superintendent in the appointment of teachers. In the five cities in Class C the superintendents do not officially participate in making appointments, because neither the boards nor the law delegates to them any authority for so doing. In the fifty-six cities in Class B the superintendents have the authority to nominate or recommend candidates, but in most cases the boards retain by far the larger responsibility by officially making the appointments. In the nine cities in Class A the superintendents have the authority for making the appointments, the boards retaining only a supervisory capacity over them.

On the other hand, considered from the standpoint of the board, the diagram shows from left to right a progressively decreasing authority exercised by the board in the discharge of its responsibility. This is the converse of the arrangement to show the authority of the superintendent

which has just been described. In the cities in Class C the boards, voluntarily or as required by law, delegate no authority for making appointments, whereas in Class A they delegate complete authority for so doing. In general the two considerations are complementary to each other: as a board increasingly delegates or is required to delegate its authority to the superintendent its own active authority necessarily decreases.

(1) *Classes of appointment are arranged according to their historical evolution*

Although the exact place of each class of appointment has not been determined by a detailed historical study, nevertheless in general the arrangement of Classes C, B, and A is according to the historical development, as shown in chapter i. This general development shows clearly the working of the evolutionary principle of differentiation and specialization of functions. Whereas in earlier times the board of education felt qualified and competent to deal directly with all matters connected with school work, now most boards see the need of a proper delegation of most functions for which they are responsible to agencies better qualified than the board to deal with them.

The boards in cities under Class C have not delegated any of their authority to the superintendent, whereas all boards in cities in Classes B and A have voluntarily, or as required by law, delegated more or less of their authority to the superintendent. This delegation of functions has been brought about, on the one hand, by a tremendous increase in the functions for the discharge of which the board is primarily responsible, and, on the other hand, by an insistent demand for more efficient education and more efficient methods of supplying it. In general the three classes of appointment represent different stages of progress in the historical evo-

lution of a system of appointing teachers. Those types at the left represent earlier stages in that evolution, and those at the right the advanced or progressive types.

If the classes are arranged in correct historical sequence, then the future development of the methods of appointment will be from the lower (Types 1-3) toward the higher types (Types 7-9). The view which one should take of the summary graph on page 44 is that in early times all cities belonged under Type 1, that the development has been toward the right of the graph, that a great majority of the cities have reached Types 4 and 5, that several pioneer cities have gone far beyond those types, that cities under Types 1, 2, and 3 are in a stage of evolution long passed by most cities, and that in due time the mode in this distribution will be found under Class A instead of under Class B.

(2) *Difference between the most extreme types*

As one views the preceding table on page 46, the difference between any two contiguous types of appointment is not striking. But if one takes a larger view, and considers the difference between the types in Class C and those in Class A, the differences are more marked. In Class C the superintendent does not officially participate in appointing teachers, while in Class A the superintendent makes the appointment subject to varying degrees of supervision by the board and its committee on teachers.

The most striking difference may be seen by contrasting Type 1 with Type 9. The appointment of teachers in the one city in Type 1 is made by the board without the participation of either a committee of the board or the superintendent. In other words, the board exercises its authority for making appointments directly and does not delegate any portion of that authority to any subordinate agency whatsoever. In the two cities in Type 9 the board does

not exercise any positive authority in making appointments; it may only reject the appointments made by the superintendent. In these cities the board has been deprived by law of all authority for appointing teachers. The board still retains its responsibility to the public for the character of the appointments made, because the superintendent does not act as an independent officer, but as an agent of the board which appointed him. The board is protected in its responsibility for the appointment of teachers by having veto power over the superintendent and by holding him accountable for his appointments.

Whether a city is in Type 1 or in Type 9, the responsibility of the board to the public is the same. But radically different conceptions of the proper methods of discharging that responsibility are shown. In one case the board itself seeks to discharge its responsibilities directly; in the other case, in the discharge of a professional function, the board has been succeeded by a properly qualified executive officer. The centre of gravity in the appointment of teachers has passed in some cities, and is passing in others, from the board of education to the superintendent of schools.

(3) *Transition from one type to another not difficult*

In several instances the various types in the different classes of appointment do not materially differ. Hence, transition from one type to another is not a difficult matter. For example, the procedure in making appointments in Type 5, Class B, differs largely in name and not in fact from Type 7 in Class A. This similarity is brought about by the rules and regulations governing the procedure in making appointments, all of which increase the authority and responsibility of the superintendent, and correspondingly decrease the direct activity of the board. The following rules will illustrate this.

For example, in Pittsburgh the rules provide that

No teacher shall receive an appointment in the schools of Pittsburgh who is not recommended to the Board by the Superintendent of Schools.¹

Further, in Atlanta the rules provide that

All . . . teachers . . . shall before their election to any position in the schools, be recommended by the Superintendent, . . . subject to their confirmation or rejection by the Board. If any recommendation is rejected by the Board the Superintendent shall, in like manner as above provided, make other recommendations to take the place of any one so rejected, until one is made that shall meet the approval of the Board.²

Also in Kansas City, Kan., the rules provide that the committee shall recommend employees to the board, and concludes with the significant provision that

No person shall be elected . . . as teacher . . . except upon the initiative and the written recommendation of the Superintendent of Schools. . . .³

The above illustrations show that the rules enjoin the board to accept or reject the nominations of the superintendent and prevent the board from selecting teachers on its own initiative. In all such cases the nomination of the superintendent is virtually an appointment. The step necessary for such a city under Type 5 to take to make it possible to classify itself under Type 7 is a short one indeed. In view of the fact that historically the trend is in that direction, we may confidently expect that some of the cities now classified in Type 5 will be transferred eventually to the Type 7 or Type 8 groups. The resulting increase in the authority of the superintendent in the appointment of teachers as shown in Types 7 to 9 is entirely in accord with the present tendency toward the increased responsibil-

¹ *Rules* (no date), art. vii, sec. 14.

² *Rules*, in *Annual Report*, 1912, sec. 27, p. 88.

³ *Rules*, 1908-9, sec. 11.

ity and enlargement of powers of the city superintendent of schools.¹

(4) *Conclusions*

The preceding exposition has made conspicuous the following facts:

1. Historically the tendency is toward the types of appointment in Class A.

2. The transition from one type of appointment to another is not difficult, because the difference in many cases is one of name rather than of fact.

3. According to the evolutionary principle of differentiation and specialization of function, the centre of gravity in the appointment of teachers is passing from the board of education to the superintendent of schools.

4. This increased responsibility and authority of the superintendent in the appointment of teachers is but a part of the enlargement and extension generally of his responsibilities and powers.

5. The decrease in active participation by the board in the appointment of teachers does not mean a decrease in its primary responsibility for the appointment of teachers; it merely means the transferring of the discharge of that professional function from the board to the board's executive officer and professional adviser.

WHAT EACH APPOINTIVE AGENCY OFFICIALLY DOES IN MAKING APPOINTMENTS

Thus far we have given attention largely to explaining the significance of types of appointment and to considering the number of cities using each type. In the course of our analysis it has been shown that there are three agencies

¹ Chamberlain, *The Growth of Responsibility and Enlargement of Power of the City School Superintendent*. University of California Press, Berkeley.

which participate in the appointment of teachers: the board of education, a committee of the board, and the superintendent of schools. We shall now turn our attention to these appointive agencies to consider the part officially played by each. The most striking fact shown in the tabulation of the methods of appointing teachers is that the authority of each of these participants in the process of appointment ranges from complete authority in some cities to no authority in others. Concerning each agency we shall answer this question: What are the different ways in which each agency officially participates in the appointment of teachers in the different cities?

(1) *The board of education*

In most cities the board of education is the source of all authority over the appointment of teachers. In some cities the laws place the responsibility for the appointment of teachers on the superintendent. But in such cases the board still exercises some supervision over appointments. In other cities the boards adopt their own rules governing the appointment of teachers. The natural result is a great variety of methods of appointment. In the different cities the board's participation ranges from complete and exclusive authority in Nashville to no positive authority in New Haven and Indianapolis. In Nashville the board has delegated no authority. Like the prudential committee of early times which the board has succeeded, it nominates and elects its teachers without the official participation of either a committee of the board or the superintendent. This is the oldest historical type of appointment which comes within our study.

In fifty-three of the seventy cities under consideration (over 75 per cent) the board, either voluntarily or as required by law, has delegated to the superintendent or to a

committee of its own members the authority to initiate the process of making an appointment.

In fourteen of the seventy cities (or 20 per cent) the authority for making the appointments is in the hands of others, and the board exercises a supervisory function over those appointments.

In New Haven and Indianapolis the boards do not exercise any positive authority in making appointments. The law gives that authority to the superintendent and gives the board veto power over his appointments. Hence, the board has no positive, but only negative authority. This is the most extreme case of relieving the board from the exercise of this important function. Nevertheless, the increased responsibility now being everywhere conferred on the superintendent and the marked tendency to delegate all executive functions to officers, both indicate that this may ultimately become a much more common type of appointment.

The following table summarizes the different ways in which the board participates in the appointment of teachers and the number of cities in each case.

1. The board appoints on the recommendation of others . . .	53 cities
2. The board approves the appointments made by others . . .	14 "
3. The board, exclusive of others, appoints	1 city
4. The board does not participate	<u>2 cities</u>
Total	70 cities

(2) *The committee on teachers*

The committee on teachers of the board of education is a creation of the board.¹ No statute provides for such a committee. The board is exclusively responsible for its creation and for the rules under which it does its work. The committee is made up of members of the board and is

¹ Bard, *The City School District*, p. 63.

responsible to the board. It has no inherent authority: all its acts are subject to the approval of the board.

The committee form of organization is an undesirable inheritance. It has been retained so long because boards have recognized the necessity of delegating to others the discharge of certain functions for which they are responsible; the present need is that boards should delegate the discharge of those functions to officers and not to committees of their own members.

The committee can never be an effective means of securing well qualified teachers. It cannot, as has been already pointed out, be held responsible for its selections. It affords abundant opportunity for the exercising of unprincipled means in the selection of teachers. It is easily influenced by the appeal of home-bred girls, of self-seekers, and of other agencies that have little real interest in the education of children.

The variety of activities performed by the committee in the appointment of teachers shows that there is less general agreement among boards of education on the part which a committee may properly play in the appointment of teachers than on the proper functions of either the board of education or the superintendent. The diversity of conceptions held by boards of education considering how best to appoint teachers is well illustrated by the variety of ways in which the committee participates in such appointments.

In seven of the seventy cities the committee appoints teachers subject to the board's approval. This is the most authority which the boards confer on the committee on teachers. This practically amounts to complete authority, because the board's approval is usually merely a formal matter. The committee exercises this authority because the board has by formal rules delegated such authority to the committee.

In three cities the committee initiates the nomination or recommendation leading to an appointment. In such cases, unfortunately, the superintendent takes no part in the appointment. In forty-three cities the committee approves the nominations of the superintendent, who originates the process leading to an appointment. The committee acts largely as an intermediary between the superintendent and the board. This provision for the committee's approval of the superintendent's nominations serves no necessary or beneficial purpose. In many cities the board is enjoined by law to consider the nominations of the superintendent. Of what use is it to have a committee act on them before the board considers them? With a suitable merit list, and with a board of reasonable size, this act of the committee has become a useless inherited appendage which could advantageously be severed.

In seventeen cities a committee does not participate in making appointments: the appointments are made by the board and the superintendent directly. In eight of these seventeen cities there are no committees. In the nine other cities there are committees of the board, but they take no action in making appointments. The fact that seventeen cities can appoint teachers without the aid of standing committees is sufficient proof that committees are not indispensable.

The following table summarizes the different ways in which the committee on teachers participates in the appointment of teachers, and the number of cities in each case.

1. The committee appoints subject to approval of board . . .	7 cities
2. The committee originally nominates candidates	3 "
3. The committee approves nominations of the superintendent	43 "
4. The committee does not participate	17 "
Total	70 cities

(3) *The superintendent of schools*

The superintendent is an executive and administrative officer selected by the board to perform professional services. One would naturally expect to find him playing a large part in the performance of such a technical and professional function as the appointment of teachers. But the extent of the authority officially exercised by the superintendent varies as much as does the authority of the board or of the committee. In spite of the fact that the city superintendent is a school officer found in every city in the United States, nevertheless many boards of education still retain features of the old forms of doing business which were in operation before a superintendent was known.

In two cities the superintendent exercises complete authority in making appointments. There is no action by a committee. The board has by law been shorn of all power in making appointments. The board has veto power over the appointments of the superintendent. In seven cities the superintendent appoints teachers, and his appointments must be approved by the board before they are effective. In fifty-six cities the superintendent nominates candidates, and his nominations are approved by the committee, and appointments are made by the board.

In only five cities the superintendent has no official part to play in making appointments.

The following table summarizes the different ways in which the superintendent participates in the appointment of teachers, and the number of cities in each case.

1. The superintendent appoints subject only to veto	2 cities
2. The superintendent appoints subject to approval	7 "
3. The superintendent nominates	56 "
4. The superintendent does not participate	5 "
Total	70 cities

(4) *Summary and conclusions*

Concerning the appointive agencies, the following summary shows in how many cities each agency officially (a) does not participate in making appointments, (b) originates the appointments, (c) approves the nominations or appointments of others, and (d) makes the appointments.

(a) Does not participate		
Board	2 cities	
Committee	17 "	
Superintendent	5 "	
(b) Originates the appointments		
Board	1 city	
Committee	4 cities	
Superintendent	65 "	
(c) Approves the nominations or appointments of others		
Board	14 cities	
Committee	46 "	
Superintendent	0 city	
(d) Makes the appointments		
Board	54 cities	
Committee	7 "	
Superintendent	9 "	

The following facts may be deduced from the preceding analysis:

1. The board is the agency which is seldom left out of the procedure in making appointments; it rarely originates an appointment; it sometimes approves the appointment* of others; and finally the board is the agency which by far most often officially makes the appointments.

2. The committee of the board is the agency most often omitted from the procedure of making appointments; it seldom originates an appointment; it occasionally makes appointments; and finally by far the most frequent duty of the committee is the approval of nominations or appointments made by the superintendent.

3. The superintendent is occasionally left out of the

procedure in making appointments; he frequently makes appointments; he never approves the nominations or appointments of others; the superintendent is the agent who by far most frequently originates the process which leads to an appointment.

CHAPTER IV

ELIGIBILITY QUALIFICATIONS AND METHODS OF DETERMINING THEM IN SELECTED CITIES

THOSE who appoint teachers must consider the qualifications of the candidates. Therefore, the eligibility qualifications of teachers logically form an integral part of this study. However, to work out the details of the eligibility qualifications for appointment in each of the seventy-three cities covered in this study is an elaborate and important study in itself, and cannot be undertaken in this monograph.

CONDITIONS MET WITH IN MAKING A COMPREHENSIVE STUDY

1. The eligibility qualifications for appointment in some cities are undefined and hence are not stated in school documents. In Worcester the committee on high schools of the board of education has general charge of the high schools. The following is the only reference to the qualifications of high school teachers in the rules of the school committee. "All certificates of qualification for teachers in these schools shall be given by this Committee."¹ Obviously the only source of information concerning the eligibility qualifications for high school teachers in Worcester is the committee on high schools.

2. The eligibility qualifications in some cities are partly or largely contained in the state laws. In Newark, candidates for any certificate from the city board of examiners

¹ *Rules*, 1908, chap. iv, sec. 12.

shall be required to hold an appropriate license in full force and effect, issued by the State Board of Examiners, and in addition thereto, a certificate of qualification for appointment under the rules and regulations of the Board of Education of the city of Newark.¹

Hence, in a detailed study of the eligibility qualifications in such cities, the state laws must be examined.

3. Again, the eligibility qualifications are classified in such different ways in different cities that the facts can scarcely be reduced to a comparable basis. In Paterson the rules provide that the board of examiners shall issue twenty-two distinct licenses to various classes of teachers and principals in the public schools. For each license there are special qualifications. In any one of many other cities the same classes of teachers would be certificated by one-fourth that number of licenses.

4. Likewise, when clearly and definitely stated, sometimes the eligibility qualifications are so limited and modified by qualifying clauses, or there are so many alternatives offered, that no significant generalizations can be made, even on the basis of a complete and correct tabulation of the facts. As an example of alternatives, note the following: in New York City, to be eligible to take the teachers' examinations to qualify as a teacher in grades 1 to 6 inclusive, one of the several qualifications reads:

Five years' successful experience in teaching, together with the passing of an academic examination set by the City Superintendent of Schools for admission to training schools, *or* by the State Commissioner of Education for a State Life Certificate, given since 1892, *or* by the College Entrance Examination Board of the Middle States and Maryland for admission to college, *or* the passing of other academic examination approved by the Board of Examiners.²

Further, the tabulation of the eligibility qualifications for elementary school teachers in the first class and second

¹ *Annual Report*, 1910-11, xi, p. 336.

² *Manual of the Board of Education*, 1911, sec. 71 (E), p. 151.

class cities, as stated in their printed documents, does not show a single item of regular school education that is uniformly specified as a requirement. One might expect that all candidates who qualify to become teachers in the elementary schools would have to be high school graduates, but such is not the case. For example, how much school training must a teacher have had to meet the above requirement in New York City?

5. Finally, and possibly most significant of all, is the fact that school documents give little or no information concerning the present practice under the eligibility requirements. To be of most significance, a detailed study should indicate, at least in general, what proportion of the teachers qualify under each possible eligibility requirement. Then one would know something of the character of the teachers who are being appointed. For example, in Cincinnati there are two separate lists of candidates eligible for appointment in the elementary schools.¹ On the first list there are two classes of candidates: (a) those who are college graduates and have taken in college at least twenty-four college credits in education, and (b) those who are college graduates without the work in education, but who instead have had two years' experience in teaching. On the second list are (a) those who are high school graduates and who in addition are graduates of a two year normal school course, and (b) those who are high school graduates with two years' experience in teaching.

Merely to present the above facts is to tell the truth, but the truth in such a case is likely to be misleading. It is necessary to explain that candidates are never taken from the second list until the first list is exhausted, and there are usually enough candidates on the first list to fill the vacancies and new positions. From this it becomes clear that

¹ *Circular of Information*, 1912.

the teachers who are appointed to positions in the elementary schools in Cincinnati are usually college graduates who have had nearly one complete year of work in education or two years' teaching experience. To state the above eligibility requirements without making the above explanation is misleading; to make such explanations for each city would occupy too large a part of this monograph, even if the time to make them were at our disposal.

In the foregoing there is no implied criticism of cities because they do not state their eligibility requirements in uniform terms. The single purpose of the above explanation is to show what the conditions are. To generalize without working out the detailed requirements is unscientific; to attempt to state the detailed requirements in this monograph would lead us too far from our subject and could bring no desirable results. Therefore, instead of trying to make a comparative study of the eligibility qualifications in the seventy-three cities, it will be more advantageous for our purpose to study intensively the eligibility requirements in a few city school systems and discuss these as types.

STUDY OF ELIGIBILITY REQUIREMENTS IN SELECTED CITIES

The more important eligibility requirements are usually stated in terms of amount of academic education, professional training, and teaching experience. These requirements are fixed by state law or by the rules of the board of education. In some cities age requirements are fixed. In various cities candidates are required to furnish certificates of moral character, of health, of birth, of vaccination, and of normal school or college graduation. We are chiefly concerned, however, with the academic and professional requirements in selected cities, and with the methods used

in these cities to determine whether candidates possess the prescribed qualifications.

To study eligibility qualifications and the methods of determining them requires that we consider: (1) eligibility requirements for teachers in (a) elementary schools and (b) high schools; (2) the examinations for testing candidates who want to teach in (a) elementary schools and (b) high schools; (3) the board of examiners (or other agency) that conducts the examinations; and (4) the merit list of eligible candidates.

BOSTON

I. ELIGIBILITY REQUIREMENTS FOR TEACHERS

(a) *Elementary schools*

The eligibility requirements for teachers in the elementary schools in Boston are:

Evidence of two years' successful experience in teaching and governing regular graded day schools, or graduation from the Boston Normal School.¹

In addition candidates must

present satisfactory evidence of possessing good character, health, and scholarship, and satisfactory and documentary evidence of the date of birth. . . .²

It is interesting to observe that no amount of schooling is prescribed for elementary school candidates.

(b) *High schools*

The eligibility requirements are:

A diploma from a college or university approved by the board of superintendents, or from an institution of as high a grade: evidence of three years' successful experience in teaching and governing regular graded day schools.³

¹ *Rules*, 1912, chap. vii, sec. 138, viii.

² *Ibid.*, sec. 138.

³ *Ibid.*, sec. 138, iv.

2. EXAMINATIONS FOR TESTING THE FITNESS OF CANDIDATES

(a) *Elementary schools*

A candidate for the elementary school certificate . . . will be examined in the following subjects. The examination may include the method of teaching the same:

1. English language and grammar.
2. English and American literature.
3. Essay.
4. Psychology and principles of education.
5. Drawing.
6. Theory of music; singing.
7. English and American history with civil government.
8. Arithmetic or algebra or plane geometry.
9. Physical and political geography, or botany, or zoölogy, or physiology.
10. Latin, or German, or French, or physics, or chemistry.¹

The graduates of the Boston Normal School are entitled to receive certificates of qualification without examinations.

(b) *High schools*

ELEMENTARY EXAMINATION ²

A candidate for the high school certificate will be examined in each of the following subjects:

1. English and American literature.
2. One foreign language (Latin, French, or German).
3. Psychology and principles of education.
4. Essay.
5. General history.

ADVANCED EXAMINATION

A candidate for the high school certificate will also be examined in one major and two minor subjects that he shall elect from any one of the following groups. Both major and minor subjects must be selected

¹ *Circular of Information*, no. 32, 1913, p. 21.

² *Circular of Information*, no. 32, 1913, pp. 18-19. A recent regulation states that the degree of Master of Arts in Education will be accepted in lieu of two years' experience in the requirements for high school certificates, provided certain requirements as to academic and professional education, including practice teaching, are fulfilled by the holder of the degree.

66 THE APPOINTMENT OF TEACHERS IN CITIES

from the same group. The major subject must be chosen from those marked 1; one minor subject must be chosen from those marked 2; the second minor subject must be chosen from those marked 3. Both an elementary and advanced examination in the same subject may be taken, but a subject taken as a major may not also be taken as a minor.

Group I

Major Subject	First Minor Subject	Second Minor Subject
1. English and American Literature.	2. English History.	3. Composition and Rhetoric.

Group II

1. Latin Language and Literature.	2. Greek. 2. German. 2. French.	3. Ancient History.
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Group III

1. French Language and Literature.	2. German. 2. Latin. 2. French. 2. Spanish. 2. Italian.	3. Mediæval and Modern European History.
1. German Language and Literature.		
1. Spanish Language and Literature.		
1. Italian Language and Literature.		

Group IV

1. American History.	2. English History.	3. Ancient History. 3. Mediæval and Modern European History.
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Group V

1. Bookkeeping and Commercial Arithmetic.	2. Economics. 2. Bookkeeping and Commercial Arithmetic.	3. Commercial Law and Commercial Geography.
1. Phonography and Typewriting.	2. Phonography and Typewriting.	

Group VI

1. Trigonometry and Analytics.	2. Algebra.	3. Geometry.
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Group VII

Major Subject	First Minor Subject	Second Minor Subject
1. Physics.	2. Physiology.	3. Chemistry.
1. Chemistry.	2. Physical Geography.	3. Physics.
	2. Algebra.	

Group VIII

1. Botany.	2. Botany.	3. Chemistry.
1. Zoölogy.	2. Zoölogy.	
	2. Physiology.	

Group IX

1. Household Science and Arts.	2. Physiology.	3. Chemistry.
	2. Botany.	
	2. Zoölogy.	

Group X

1. Free-hand Drawing.	2. History of Art.	3. Composition and Design.
	2. Mechanical Drawing.	
	2. Manual Training.	

Group XI

1. Manual Training.	2. Mechanical Drawing.	3. Composition and Design.
	2. Free-hand Drawing.	

Group XII

1. Musical Composition.	2. History of Music.	3. Biography of Musical Composers.
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Group XIII

1. Economics.	2. Industrial History.	3. Commercial Law and Commercial Geog- raphy.
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3. THE BOARD OF EXAMINERS

In Boston the board of examiners is the board of superintendents, consisting of the superintendent of schools and the six assistant superintendents. The assistant superintendents are elected by the school committee for a term

of six years. In the discharge of their duties they are the personal representatives of the superintendent.

The examinations are designed to test the training, knowledge, and aptness for teaching of the candidates. In general, the marking for day school and supervisory certificates is on a scale of one thousand points, of which six hundred points may be obtained by examination, and four hundred points may be allowed for amount and quality of previous experience in teaching and governing schools.¹

4. THE MERIT LIST

Candidates eligible for permanent positions in either the elementary or high schools are placed on the appropriate eligible lists, and an appointment must be made from among the first three names on the proper list.²

The noteworthy and commendable features of the Boston system are: a system of examinations which includes academic and professional subjects to test general education as well as the special preparation for teaching in either the elementary or the secondary schools; a board of examiners consisting of the highest professional officers in the school system; and a merit list of candidates for both the elementary and the secondary schools.

ST. LOUIS

1, 2. ELIGIBILITY REQUIREMENTS FOR TEACHERS AND THE EXAMINATIONS FOR TESTING THE FITNESS OF CANDIDATES

(a) *Elementary schools*

Graduates of the St. Louis Teachers College, and those who have been assigned as apprentice teachers and have done successful work, may be placed on the eligible list without written examinations. Also the superintendent is

¹ *Circular of Information*, no. 32, 1913, p. 6.

² *Rules*, 1912, chap. vii, sec. 144, 1.

authorized by the rules to list for employment, without written examinations, persons whom he deems qualified for service, and who have recently been graduated from the Missouri State University, Washington University, or from other colleges of national standing, or the state normal schools.¹

Applicants who are not graduates of State Normal Schools, colleges, or universities of national standing, will be required to take a written examination in the following subjects: Reading, Grammar, Composition and Penmanship, Arithmetic, Geography, and History of the United States. But no person is entitled to take this examination who has not had experience in public school work for at least two years immediately preceding the time of such examination. The personal qualification of the candidate, her education, her professional experience, and her general information shall be considered in an oral examination.²

(b) *High schools*

For admission to the examination

the presentation of a diploma of some first-class college or Normal School is required.³ . . . The branches required in the written examinations are Algebra, Geometry, Latin, English Literature, History and Grammar of the English Language, General History, Natural Science, and Theory and History of Education. An oral examination is added to afford an opportunity of becoming acquainted with the personality, general information, and general ability of the applicant. The Superintendent may allow the substitution of equivalent studies for some of those in the list.⁴

3. THE BOARD OF EXAMINERS

The city charter⁵ provides that the "examination for appointment shall be conducted by the Superintendent under regulations to be made by the Board."

¹ *Abstract from the Rules*, 1910, regulation iv, sec. i and ii, pp. 35-36.

² *Ibid.*, sec. iii, p. 37.

³ *Ibid.*, regulation ii, sec. ii, p. 26.

⁴ *Ibid.*, sec. iii, pp. 26-27.

⁵ City Charter, 1897, sec. 7.

The rules ¹ of the board of education provide:

The Superintendent of Instruction, the Assistant Superintendents, the principals of the high schools, and such supervisors, principals, and teachers as the Superintendent may select shall constitute a Committee of Examiners.

4. THE MERIT LIST

There is a merit list of elementary and high school candidates. The board announces in the rules its intention "to call in rotation on the persons placed on the eligible list, when their services are needed," but "it does not enter into any obligation to employ any applicant on the list."² The board "reserves the right to discontinue at its discretion, any or all the names on such eligible list."³

The noteworthy and commendable features of the St. Louis system are: the recognition which is given to certificates of graduation from reputable institutions; the exclusive authority conferred on the superintendent to conduct the examinations and to select such of the supervisory officers and teachers as he may desire to assist; the merit list of candidates for elementary and high schools.

PORTLAND, ME.

I. ELIGIBILITY REQUIREMENTS FOR TEACHERS

(a) *Elementary schools*

Teachers in the grammar and primary schools of the city shall be graduates of an accredited normal school or training school; or hold a teacher's state certificate authorizing the holder to teach in the elementary schools of Maine for a period of not less than five years.⁴

(b) *High schools*

Teachers in the high schools shall be graduates of reputable colleges, universities, or scientific schools, or hold a teacher's state cer-

¹ Rule 44 (2), 1911, p. 69.

² Rules, 1910, regulation iv, sec. 1, p. 36.

³ *Ibid.*, sec. 5, p. 37.

⁴ Rules, 1912, chap. vi, sec. 614.

tificate authorizing the holder to teach for life in the public schools of Maine.¹

2, 3. EXAMINATIONS FOR TESTING THE FITNESS OF CANDIDATES GIVEN BY THE SUPERINTENDENT

The law² provides as follows:

II. On satisfactory evidence that a candidate possesses a good moral character and a temper and disposition suitable for an instructor of youth, he shall examine him in reading, spelling, English grammar, geography, history, arithmetic, civil government, bookkeeping, and physiology, with special reference to the effects of alcoholic drinks, stimulants and narcotics upon the human system; and the elements of the natural sciences, especially as applied to agriculture, and such other branches as the superintending school committee desire to introduce into public schools, and particularly into the school for which he is examined; also as to his capacity for the government thereof.

III. He shall give to each candidate found competent, a certificate that he is qualified to govern said school and instruct in the branches above named, and such other branches as may be necessary to be taught therein, or he may render valid by endorsement any graded certificates issued to teachers by normal school principals. No certificates shall be granted any person to teach in the public schools of the state who has not passed a satisfactory examination in physiology and hygiene, with special reference to the effects of alcoholic drinks, stimulants and narcotics upon the human system.

4. THE MERIT LIST

There are no provisions in the rules for a merit list of candidates, although the superintendent states that in practice there is such a list.

The features of the Portland system to be noted are: the specifically stated requirements for teachers in the elementary and high schools; the provision in the law that the superintendent shall examine candidates for teaching positions; and the acceptance in the city of certificates issued by the state.

¹ *Rules*, 1912, chap. vi, sec. 614.

² Quoted in *Rules*, 1912, p. 29.

CINCINNATI¹

I. ELIGIBILITY REQUIREMENTS FOR TEACHERS

(a) *Elementary schools*

All candidates must be high school graduates and must have had a two year normal school course or two years' successful experience in teaching.

They must have certificates from the Cincinnati board of examiners or the Ohio state board of examiners, and must have done practice teaching for inspection by the Cincinnati authorities.

(b) *High schools*

College graduation is required of all teachers of academic subjects. Candidates must have specialized in college in the subjects which they desire to teach.

2. EXAMINATIONS² FOR TESTING THE FITNESS OF CANDIDATES(a) *Elementary schools*

All candidates must be examined in theory and practice of teaching. This examination covers Psychology, Methods, and the History of Education in the last two centuries.

The other subjects are: Reading, Literature, English Grammar and Composition, Spelling, History of the United States and Civil Government, Geography, Arithmetic, Hygiene and Narcotics, Writing, Music, and Drawing. "The examination involves questions occurring in the elementary course of study, except in Literature in which the examination is based upon the high school course in English." Graduates of the College for Teachers are exempt from examination, except in theory and practice.

¹ The following exposition is based on a *Circular of Information* issued in 1912.

² Examinations are practically as prescribed by state law.

(b) High schools

In addition to the examination in theory and practice explained under elementary school requirements, candidates for high school positions must pass examinations in the following subjects: General History, Literature, Algebra, Physics, Physiology, and four branches selected from Latin, German, Rhetoric, Civil Government, Geometry, Physical Geography, Botany, Chemistry.

3. THE BOARD OF EXAMINERS

According to the state law,¹ the board of examiners consists of three members selected by the board of education for a term of three years, the term of one member expiring each year. The law further provides that two of the members "must have had at least two years' practical experience in teaching in the public schools." The compensation is fixed by the board of education at \$400. The present board consists of the superintendent of schools, a newspaper man, and a practicing physician.

"An average of at least seventy-five with no grade below seventy in any branch is required for a certificate, but in order to be ranked for appointment in the first or preferred list, an average of not less than eighty is required."

4. THE MERIT LIST

(a) Elementary schools

There are two lists of candidates: list one consists of those who are college graduates, and who have taken work in education or have had two years' experience in teaching. Their place on the list is determined by the average of their college record, their examination record, and their grade for practice teaching under inspection.

¹ Laws of 1912, sec. 7838.

List two consists of those who are high school graduates with two years of normal training or two years' experience. Their rank is determined by their examination record and the mark in practice teaching.

Candidates are appointed invariably in the order of rank. Teachers are not appointed from the second as long as there are candidates on the first list.

(b) *High schools*

Appointments are usually made from the elementary schools, although this is not an invariable rule, as it is the intention to select the best candidate for a position. Candidates for high school positions are listed according to subjects which they are qualified to teach. Their rank is determined by their teaching ability as shown by their work in the elementary school or in the high schools outside the city. Their college records in the subjects they wish to teach, the amount of undergraduate and graduate work they have taken in those subjects, the amount of professional work in education they have taken, and their records in the city examination are also taken into consideration.

Candidates are invariably appointed from the head of each appropriate merit list.

The commendable features of the Cincinnati system are: the exceptionally high academic and professional standards established for elementary and high school teachers; the strictness with which appointments are made from the head of the merit list; and the first and second list of elementary school candidates.

The undesirable features of the Cincinnati system are: the antiquated requirement established by state law that a teacher must pass an academic examination in almost every subject in the high school curriculum before he is eligible to teach any one of them, and the board of examiners con-

sisting of two laymen, who may or may not be good judges of the qualifications of the teachers.

WORCESTER

I. ELIGIBILITY REQUIREMENTS FOR TEACHERS

(a) *Elementary schools*

No one shall be entitled to take an examination for a certificate in the graded schools who has not taken the equivalent of a high school course, and who has not graduated from a normal school which has a full three years' course, including one year's apprenticeship; or, if a graduate of another normal school, has not had an experience regarded by the committee as equivalent of a year's apprenticeship.¹

No teacher shall be employed, except in the high schools, evening schools, kindergartens, or as a special teacher, who has not received a certificate from the committee on teachers.²

(b) *High schools*

The committee on high schools shall have general charge of the day high schools. "All certificates of qualification for teachers in these schools shall be given by this committee."³ The qualifications for appointment to the high schools are not defined by the school committee in its regulations. No examinations are specified. The whole matter of determining the qualifications for appointment, and the examination for testing those qualifications, are left to the committee, without any special supervision by the school committee.

2. EXAMINATIONS FOR TESTING THE FITNESS OF CANDIDATES

No person shall receive a certificate to teach in the public schools of the city, except in the high schools, evening schools, kindergartens, and as a special teacher, who has not passed a satisfactory examination, under the direction of the committee on teachers, in the following subjects: arithmetic, grammar, geography, history, civil government, physiology, psychology and principles of teaching, drawing and music.⁴

¹ *Rules*, 1908, chap. iv, sec. 2.

² *Ibid.*, sec. 12.

³ *Ibid.*

⁴ *Ibid.*, sec. 2.

The rules do not define the examinations for high school teachers; these are left to the committee on high schools.

3. THE BOARD OF EXAMINERS

The committee on teachers

shall annually, and at such other times as it may deem expedient, examine persons desiring to teach in the primary and grammar grades of the day schools, and shall give certificates of qualification to such persons as it shall consider entitled thereto. No certificate shall be granted until after a personal examination by the Committee on Teachers.¹

The committee on high schools determines the eligibility requirements, and inasmuch as they are not defined, we can only assume that the committee likewise conducts such examinations as it deems necessary.

4. THE MERIT LIST

The rules do not contain any information concerning a merit list. However, the superintendent states that there is a merit list of elementary school candidates, and the high school teachers "are generally chosen by confirming the nominations of the Superintendent." One wonders how much emphasis should be placed on the word *generally*.

The system in Worcester is to be condemned in most respects: the eligibility qualifications are defined for candidates for the elementary schools, but they are not defined for high school teachers; with no defined eligibility requirements for high school positions, the examinations to test those qualifications cannot be stated; lay committees of the board conduct examinations and issue certificates, in both cases without any supervision by the board or superintendent. A merit list is not officially provided, in the case of either the elementary or the secondary school candidates, although it exists in practice in the case of the former.

¹ *Rules*, 1908, chap. iv, sect. 2.

COMPARATIVE TABULATIONS OF PHASES OF ELIGIBILITY REQUIREMENTS

In order to bring together some of the results of the preceding detailed study of selected cities, we present here some comparative tabulations which, because of the preceding exposition, carry their own explanations. Blank spaces in the following tabulations mean that such information is not contained in the school documents consulted.

I. AMOUNT OF SCHOOLING AND TEACHING EXPERIENCE

(a) *Elementary school candidates*

	Boston	St. Louis	Portland	Cincinnati	Worcester
Amount of schooling	None				
Normal school	pre-	×	×	× ¹	×
College or university	scribed				
Teaching experience	2 yrs.	2 yrs.	None	× ²	None
Additional examination	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes

(b) *High school candidates*

Amount of schooling					
Normal school		×			
College or university	×	×	×	×	None
Teaching experience	3 yrs.			2 yrs.	specified
Additional examination	Yes	Yes		Yes	

2. SUBJECTS OF EXAMINATIONS

(a) *Elementary school candidates*

The following table is a summary of the examinations required of elementary school candidates in each city:

¹ Minimum requirement; such candidates are not appointed as long as there are college graduates on the first preferred list.

² Inexperienced candidates serve at least two months as cadets, or substitutes, in the Cincinnati schools before being appointed to regular teaching positions.

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	Boston	St. Louis	Portland	Cincinnati	Worcester
<i>Academic Subjects Required</i>					
1. English language and grammar	×
2. Eng. literature and Am. literature	×	×	×	×	×
3. Essays	×	×	...
4. Drawing	×	×	×
5. Music	×	×	×
6. Eng. history and Am. history	×
civics	×	×	×	×	×
7. Arithmetic or algebra or plane geometry	...	×	×	×	×
8. Physical and political geography or botany or zoölogy or physiology and narcotics	×
9. Latin or German or French or physics or chemistry	×
10. Reading	...	×	×	×	...
11. Composition and penmanship	...	×	...	×	...
12. Spelling	...	×	×	×	...
13. Bookkeeping	×	×	...
14. Agriculture	×	×	...
15. Hygiene and narcotics	×	...
<i>Professional Subjects Required</i>					
16. Psychology and prin. of education	×	×	×
17. Methods	×	×	×
18. History of education	×	×	...

(b) *High school candidates*

In each column, under the name of the city, is given a list of the subjects in which candidates for high school positions are examined:

Boston	St. Louis	Cincinnati	Portland, Worcester
<i>Elementary Examination</i>			
1. Eng. and Am. literature	1. Eng. literature	1. Literature	None defined
2. Latin or French or German	2. Latin	3. Algebra	in these cities
3. Essay			
4. General history	3. General history	2. General history	
	4. Algebra	3. Algebra	
<i>Advanced Examination</i>			
A major and two minors in a given field of study	5. Geometry	4. Physics	
	6. History and grammar of Eng. literature	5. Physiology	
	7. Natural science	6. Four out of eight other high school subjects	
<i>Professional Subjects</i>			
Psychology and prin. of education	History and theory of education	Psychology History of education, methods	

(c) *Exemptions from examinations*

The exemptions from the regularly prescribed examinations for elementary school candidates are as follows:

Boston. Graduates of the Boston Normal School.

St. Louis. Graduates of the St. Louis Teachers College, and such graduates of colleges and normal schools as the superintendent deems qualified.

Portland. Graduates of state normal schools may be certified by the superintendent without examination.

Cincinnati. A state life certificate is valid without further examination. Graduates of the College for Teachers of the University of Cincinnati may be excused from all examinations except that in theory and practice.

Worcester. No exemptions.

The exemptions from the regularly prescribed examinations for high school candidates are as follows:

Boston. None.

St. Louis. None.

Portland. No examinations required.

Cincinnati. A state life certificate is valid without further examination.

Worcester. No examinations prescribed.

3. MEMBERSHIP OF BOARD OF EXAMINERS

	No. of Members	Who they Are
Boston	7	Superintendent and six assistant superintendents
St. Louis	?	Superintendent and the assistant superintendents, and such supervisors, principals, and teachers as the superintendents may select
Portland	1	Superintendent
Cincinnati	3	Superintendent, a newspaper man, and a physician
Worcester	5	For elementary schools: committee on teachers
	9	For high schools: committee on high schools

4. THE MERIT LIST

The following tabulation shows whether there is an official merit list of eligible candidates for elementary schools and high schools, and how appointments are made from it.

	For Elementary Schools	For High Schools	How Appointments are Made
Boston	Yes	Yes	From first three names
St. Louis	Yes	Yes	In rotation
Portland	Unofficial one	No	No data
Cincinnati	Yes	Yes	First name
Worcester	Unofficial one	No	No data

SUMMARY OF CONCLUSIONS

We have passed in review the eligibility requirements and the methods of determining them in selected cities. The variations in requirements and methods in these five cities are typical of the variety of standards of eligibility of candidates in cities generally.

While each of the five cities is, of course, an object of much general interest, yet each city was selected for study for particular reasons. Boston represents the larger cities. It was selected particularly to illustrate that type of city which has a board of examiners consisting of the professional leaders in the school system, namely, the board of superintendents.

St. Louis belongs to the same class of large cities, but it illustrates a different method of organizing a board of examiners. The superintendent is given large authority and much discretionary power in accepting credentials of candidates in lieu of examinations, and also in selecting the members of the committee on examinations.

Portland represents the small cities, and it illustrates how the examination of teachers is centralized, by law, in the superintendent's office.

Cincinnati is among the larger cities and shows how a state imposes on a city school system an archaic system of examinations. It also shows how a large local board of education can be equally non-progressive in constituting a board of examiners of three members, two of whom are laymen.

Worcester is among the second class cities in size and was selected to illustrate an undesirable method, too commonly employed, of placing the discharge of the highly technical and professional function of examining teachers in the hands of a committee of the board of education consisting of laymen.

Concerning eligibility requirements we find:

1. At least a normal school course is specified as the amount of schooling required of elementary school candidates in four of the cities. Boston does not fix as a standard any amount of schooling.

2. College or university graduation is fixed as the amount of schooling required of high school candidates in three cities. Worcester does not define any amount of schooling. St. Louis may accept normal graduates.

3. Boston and St. Louis fix as a prerequisite two years' successful experience for elementary school candidates. Boston fixes three years for high school candidates and Cincinnati two years.

Concerning the examinations required of elementary school candidates, we find:

1. Only English grammar and American history are required of candidates in all five cities.

2. Arithmetic is required in four cities, but algebra or plane geometry may be substituted for it in Boston. Civics and geography are likewise required in four of these five cities.

3. Drawing, music, and reading are required in three of the five cities.

4. Most of the academic subjects are required of candidates in only one or two cities.

5. The professional subjects, psychology and methods of teaching, are required in three out of five cities.

6. In general there is great variety in the subjects constituting the examination in various cities, as shown by the fact that there are thirty-two different subjects offered in only five different cities.

Concerning the examinations required of high school candidates, we find more variety than in the requirements of elementary school candidates.

1. In Worcester no examinations for high school candidates are defined in the rules.

2. In Portland only one series of examinations is defined by law, and it is presumable that these examinations are for elementary school candidates only.

3. English literature and general history are the only subjects that are specifically required in the three other cities.

Concerning exemptions from the prescribed examinations, we find:

1. The graduates of the local teachers' training schools are usually wholly or partially exempt from the regular examinations.

2. Exemptions from the examinations for elementary school candidates are more frequent than from those for high school candidates.

Concerning the board of examiners to test the fitness of candidates, we find:

1. In Boston, St. Louis, Portland, and Cincinnati the superintendent participates in the examination of candidates for teaching positions; in Worcester the superintendent does not, according to the rules, exercise such participation.

2. In Boston and in St. Louis the other members of the board are members of the profession within the school system; in Portland the superintendent acts alone.

3. In Cincinnati the members of the board consist of the superintendent of schools, a newspaper man, and a practicing physician.

4. In Worcester the committee on teachers, of five members, examines candidates for the elementary schools, and the committee on high schools, of nine members, does likewise for the high schools.

Concerning a merit list of eligible candidates, we find:

1. In Boston, St. Louis, and Cincinnati there is a list for both the elementary and the high schools.

2. In Portland there is a merit list in use, although it is not officially provided for in the rules.

3. In Worcester there is a merit list of elementary school candidates in use, although such a list is not provided for by the rules. There is no merit list of high school candidates.

4. In Boston the election of teachers from the merit list is from among the first three candidates; in Cincinnati the first candidate is invariably selected. In St. Louis the rule is to select the first person named on the list, although the board reserves the right to pass over a name.

PART II
THE CITY BOARD OF EDUCATION

CHAPTER V

THE AUTHORITY OF BOARDS OF EDUCATION IN CITIES

Education not a Federal Matter. Education in the United States is a state and not a federal matter. It is not mentioned in the national constitution.¹ The United States bureau of education has no authority in educational matters. Its chief function is the dissemination of information. Its influence is limited to the voluntary acceptance of its suggestion, for it has no authority either to direct in any way educational procedure, or to require even the slightest consideration of its suggestions.

Education a Function of the State. The states have always viewed education as an object of their special concern. The earliest constitutions adopted by the various states contain sections relating to education.² The states recognized their duty or obligation toward education in such terms as these:

The people have a right to the privilege of education, and it is the duty of the state to guard and maintain that right.³

The State Discharges its Responsibility through the State Legislature. To carry out its responsibility for education, the state customarily requires the state legislature to make suitable provision for public school education. The first constitutional command to a state legislature to establish a complete system of free public schools, ranging from the

¹ Draper, *Functions of the State Touching Education*, Ed. Rev. vol. xv, pp. 105-120.

² Hinsdale, *Provision Concerning Education in the State Constitutions, Report of the United States Commissioner of Education*, 1892-3, vol. ii, pp. 1312-1414.

³ Art. i, sec. 27, Constitution of North Carolina, adopted 1876. Hinsdale, *ibid.*, p. 1385.

primary school to the university, was contained in the constitution of Indiana,¹ as follows:

It shall be the duty of the general assembly, as soon as circumstances will permit, to provide by law for a general system of education, ascending in regular gradation from township schools to a State university, wherein tuition shall be gratis and equally open to all.²

Since that time states generally through their constitutions have made it the duty of the state legislature to provide suitable free public education for the people.

Agencies of State Educational Administration. While every state in the Union has established some kind of a central state educational agency, the amount of authority delegated to it differs greatly among the different states. In Massachusetts, for example, the state board of education and its executive exercise comparatively little direction over education in the state: "The chief function of the Board has been to advise, enlighten and arouse, but not to compel."³ In New York,⁴ on the other hand, the board of regents through its state commissioner of education exercises extraordinary authority — legislative, executive, and judicial — over all phases of education in the state. Obviously each form of state control affects the character of the local administrative control.

Agencies of Local Educational Administration. For purposes of local school administration the county, the township, and the city are the most common units.⁵ The county system is most common in the Southern States, and the

¹ Hinsdale, *Provision Concerning Education in the State Constitutions, Report of the United States Commissioner of Education*, 1892-3, vol ii, p. 1320.

² Art. ix, sec. 2, adopted December 11, 1816. Hinsdale, *ibid.*, p. 1319.

³ Whitten, *Public Administration in Massachusetts*, p. 24.

⁴ Fairlie, *The Centralization of Administration in New York State*, p. 39. Dutton and Snedden, *Administration of Public Education in the United States*, p. 67, Education Law of 1910, in Report of Education Department, New York, vol. ii, 1910.

⁵ Dutton and Snedden, *ibid.*, p. 73.

township system in the Middle West. The city system is, as the name indicates, the usual means by which the state legislature undertakes to provide education in cities. Each of these local administrative units bears a direct relation to the state, and usually little or no administrative relationship to one another.

Cities are Creatures of the State. Cities are created by acts of the state legislatures, and

In the absence of constitutional provisions, the control of the state through its legislative assembly is absolute. A state legislature may, in the absence of such provisions, legislate with regard to cities as it will.¹

The city has no vested rights; it has no powers not granted to it by the state legislature.² The city is an authority of enumerated powers, and can exercise only such powers as are explicitly granted to it.³ Goodnow says, the city

is not only an organ for the satisfaction of local needs: it is in many cases a most important agent of the state government, and municipal officers are not infrequently called upon to attend to matters which interest the citizens of the city only as they are citizens of the state, — matters which do not directly interest municipal government proper at all.⁴

It is clear, therefore, that except in so far as that authority is limited by the state constitution, the state is absolute in its authority over the city, and that that authority is exercised through the state legislature.

*City Board of Education*⁵ a State Agency. The state

¹ Bard, *The City School District*, p. 21.

² "City corporations are emanations of the supreme law-making power of the state, and they are established for the more convenient government of the people within their limits." — *Darlington vs. Mayor of New York*, 31 N. Y. 164. Quoted by Bard, p. 21.

³ Bard, p. 21.

⁴ Goodnow, *Municipal Problems*, p. 63.

⁵ Board of education is here used to cover the central school authority of the city, whether it is called locally the school board, the school committee, board of school directors, board of public education, or some other similar name.

legislature, through provisions in the city charter and by special or general laws, creates local agencies for the administration of education and defines their powers and responsibilities. The agency thus created for the city, as we shall see later, is the city board of education. By thus delegating power and responsibility to the local board the state does not relieve itself of responsibility: it merely thereby establishes a method of administration. In educational affairs "the city is charged with important duties, but in the discharge of such duties it acts exclusively as the agent of the state."¹ Also concerning the city school district, which is the unit of educational administration, Bard says,

Unlike the city, it is in no instance recognized as having duties of its own in the discharge of which the state need not interfere. The city school district is exclusively an agent of the state created for the discharge of state functions.²

Further, the educational officers of the city are state and not municipal officers, because they are acting in that capacity as agents of the state.³ Every important city in the United States, except Buffalo, N. Y., has a board of education.⁴ The state has conferred on the board large responsibilities and powers. One of its important responsibilities is the appointment of suitable teachers. Consequently a study of the methods of appointing teachers must take into consideration the board of education as the authority charged with that responsibility.

Summary. From the foregoing exposition it will be seen that education in the cities is a state function; that cities are creatures of the state; that the state through its legislature has absolute control over the cities, subject only to state constitutional provisions; that the state legislature,

¹ Bard, p. 23.

² *Ibid.*, p. 29.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 23.

⁴ Rollins, *School Administration in Municipal Government*, p. 21.

either through charter provisions or other legislation, establishes a city board of education and confers on it large responsibilities and powers; that among these powers and responsibilities is the appointment of teachers. It is to be observed, further, that to study a problem of local school administration, such as our problem is, it is necessary to consider the city from the standpoint of (*a*) its charter provisions as they relate to education, (*b*) the general state educational laws applicable to the city, and (*c*) the special educational laws referring to the city. In these sources are to be found the extent of state direction or control of education in the cities. Local provisions for education are to be found largely in the rules and regulations of city boards of education.

CHAPTER VI

CITY BOARDS OF EDUCATION: THEIR SIZE, MEMBERSHIP, AND COMMITTEE ORGANIZATION

IN the previous chapter the authority of the board of education in cities was considered. In this chapter I shall discuss (1) the size of city boards of education; (2) the membership of city boards, covering term of office, compensation, methods of selection, and the qualifications of members; and (3) the committee organization of city boards. The facts which form the basis of this exposition were gathered in part from school documents, and in part were furnished by superintendents. Except when specifically noted, the facts tabulated below are given as stated by the superintendents or as verified by them. The tabulations cover boards of education in the seventy-three cities considered in this monograph. As before, cities are classified as first class, second class, and third class.

THE SIZE OF CITY BOARDS OF EDUCATION

The tabulations on pages 93 to 98 show that there are small boards in all classes of cities, and that there are likewise large boards in all classes of cities, although the larger cities, on the whole, do have larger boards of education. Also there is no section of the country which has a monopoly of either the large or the small board. There are large boards in New England and also in the Middle West; there are likewise small boards in these two sections of the country. The graphs on pages 99 to 101, based on these tabulations, will bring out these and other facts.

(a) FIRST CLASS CITIES

Cities	No. of Members	Term in Years	Compensation	How Chosen	By Whom	At Large or by Wards	No. of Standing Committees	Average Size of all Committees	No. of Members on Committee on Teachers ¹
Boston	5	3	None	Elected	People	At large	None	None	None
New York	46	5	None	Appointed	Mayor	By boroughs ²	14	7	9
Buffalo ³									
Newark	9	3	None	Appointed	Mayor	At large	3	6	7
Philadelphia	15	6	None	Appointed	Ct. Com. Pleas	At large	8	6	8
Pittsburgh	15	6	None	Appointed	Ct. Com. Pleas	At large	3	7	7
Baltimore	9	6	None	Appointed	Mayor	At large	7	3	3
Washington	9	3	None	Appointed	Supreme Court	At large	12	4	5
New Orleans	5	4	None	Elected	People	At large	4	3	3

¹ Committee on teachers is a general title to cover that committee of each board which has to do with teachers.

² Twenty-two from Borough of Manhattan; four from Borough of Queens; four from Borough of the Bronx; and two from Borough of Richmond.

³ No board of education; instead there is a committee on schools of the board of aldermen.

(a) FIRST CLASS CITIES (continued)

Cities	No. of Members	Term in Years	Compensation	How Chosen	By Whom	At Large or by Wards	No. of Standing Committees	Average Size of all Committees	No. of Members on Committee on Teachers
Cleveland	7	4	None	Elected	People	5 at large 2 by districts }	6	3	3
Cincinnati	29 ¹	2	None	Elected	People	25 by wards 4 at large }	27	5	5
Chicago	21	3	None	Appointed	Mayor ²	At large	3	15	11
Detroit	21	3	None	Elected	People	By wards	8	4	5
Milwaukee	15	6	* ³	Elected	People	At large	6	5	5
Minneapolis	7	6	None	Elected	People	At large	3	3	3
St. Louis	12	6	None	Elected	People	At large	4	3	3
San Francisco	4 ⁴	4	\$3,000	Appointed	Mayor	At large	7	2	3
Los Angeles	7	2	* ⁵	Elected	People	At large	6	3	3
Total 18 cities									

¹ Since the above was prepared, Cincinnati has changed to a board of seven members, elected at large, for a term of four years, to serve without pay.

² With the consent of the city council.

³ Three dollars for each committee meeting attended; total compensation limited to \$100 for each member per year.

⁴ Three members and the superintendent ex-officio.

⁵ Ten dollars per meeting; not to exceed \$40 per month.

(b) SECOND CLASS CITIES

Cities	No. of Members	Term in Years	Compensation	How Chosen	By Whom	At Large or by Wards	No. of Standing Committees	Average Size of all Committees	No. of Members on Committee on Teachers
Cambridge	5	3	None	Elected	People	2 at large 3 by wards At large	5	3	3
Fall River	9	3	None	Elected	People		9	3	3
Lowell *	5	3	None	Elected	People	By wards	8	5	5
Worcester	30	6	None	Elected	People	By wards	12	5	5
Providence	33 ¹	3	None	Elected	People	At large	19	5	5
Bridgeport	12	3	None	Elected	People	At large	4	3	3
New Haven	7	4	None	Appointed	Mayor	At large	4	3	3
Albany	3	6	None	Appointed	Mayor	At large	None	None	None
Rochester	5	4	\$1,200	Elected	People	At large	None	None	None
Syracuse	7	4	None	Elected	People	At large	9	3	3
Jersey City	9	2	None	Appointed	Mayor	At large	6	3	3
Paterson	9	3	None	Appointed	Mayor	At large	4	5	5
Scranton	9	6	None	Elected	People	At large	3	5	5
Richmond	9	3	None	Selected	City council	By districts	6	3	4
Atlanta	12 ²	5	None	Selected	City council	By wards	2	6	6
Louisville	5	4	None	Elected	People	At large	5	2	2
Memphis	5	4	*3	Elected	People	At large	4	3	3
Nashville	9	3	None	Selected	*4	At large	4	3	3
Birmingham	5	5	None	Selected	*4	At large	5	3	3

* Data not completed or confirmed by the superintendent.

¹ Mayor, president of city council, and chairman of committee on education of the council are ex-officio members of the board.² Two ex-officio members: the mayor and the chairman of the public school committee of city council.³ President receives \$600, others \$480 per year.⁴ Selected by the five commissioners who govern the city.

(b) SECOND CLASS CITIES (continued)

Cities	No. of Members	Term in Years	Compensation	How Chosen	By Whom	At Large or by Wards	No. of Standing Committees	Average Size of all Committees	No. of Members on Committee on Teachers
Columbus	12	4	None	Elected	People	3 at large 9 by wards }	6	3	3
Dayton	14	4	None	Elected	People	2 at large 12 by wards }	3	5	5
Toledo	5	4	None	Elected	People	3 at large 2 by wards }	3	3	3
Indianapolis	5	4	None	Elected	People	At large	5	2	2
Grand Rapids	9	3	None	Elected	People	At large	4	4	6
St. Paul	7	3 ¹	None	Appointed	Mayor	At large	7	4	7
Omaha	12	3	None	Elected	People	By wards	6	4	5
Kansas City	6	6	None	Elected	People	At large	11	2	2
Denver	5	6	None	Elected	People	At large	6	2	2
Seattle	5	3	None	Elected	People	At large	6	3	3
Spokane	5	3	None	Elected	People	At large	6	3	3
Portland	5	5	None	Elected	People	At large	8	2	2
Oakland	7	4	None ^{*2}	Elected	People	At large	6	3	3
Total 32 cities									

¹ Some members selected for two years; some for three years.² Ten dollars per meeting; not to exceed \$40 per month.

(c) THIRD CLASS CITIES

Cities	No. of Members	Term in Years	Compensation	How Chosen	By Whom	At Large or by Wards	No. of Standing Committees	Average Size of all Committees	No. of Members on Committee on Teachers
Portland ¹	13	2	None	Elected	People	3 at large 9 by wards }	15	3	3
Manchester ²	12	2	\$25	Elected	People	By wards	10	3	3
Burlington	6	3	None	Elected	People	By wards	4	3	3
Wilmington	13	?	None	Elected	People	1 at large ³ 12 by wards }	15	4	4
Wheeling	21	6	None	Elected	People	By districts ⁴	9	4	7
Charlotte	17	2	None	Elected	People	By wards	7	5	5
Charleston	10	4	None	6 elected	People	By districts }	6	3	3
Jacksonville	3	2	\$4 per day	4 appointed Elected	Governor People	By districts	2	3	No data
Meridian	5	3	None	Selected	City council	At large	None	None	None
San Antonio *	7						6	3	3
Little Rock	6	3	None	Elected	People	At large	6	3	3

* Not confirmed by the superintendent.

¹ Mayor is ex-officio a member.² President of board is elected at large.

³ San Antonio. — The reply from San Antonio was incomplete, and it did not arrive in time for me to correct the information tabulated here. The board consists of nine members selected for a term of six years. There are eight committees. How members are selected is not stated.

⁴ Mayor and president of common council members ex-officio.

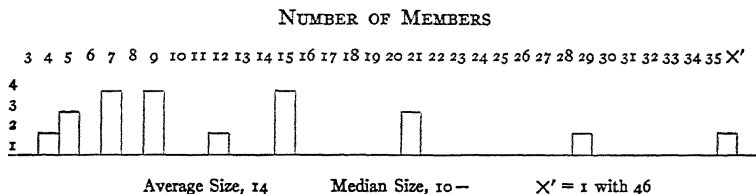
(c) THIRD CLASS CITIES (continued)

Cities	No. of Members	Term in Years	Compensation	How Chosen	By Whom	At Large or by Wards	No. of Standing Committees	Average Size of all Committees	No. of Members on Committee on Teachers
Oklahoma	8	2	None	Elected	People	At large	9	3	3
Des Moines	7	3	None	Elected	People	At large	4	3	3
Fargo	9	3	None	Elected	People	At large	8	3	4
Sioux Falls	5	5	None	Elected	People	At large	None	None	None
Kansas City	6	4	None	Elected	People	At large	6	2	2
Butte	7	3	\$4 per meeting	Elected	People	At large	6	3	3
Cheyenne	6	3	None	Elected	People	At large	5	3	3
Albuquerque	5	4	None	Elected	People	At large	6	2	2
Tucson	3	3	None	Elected	People	At large	None	None	None
Salt Lake	10	4	None	Elected	People	By wards	5	6	6
Reno	5	4 ¹	None	Elected	People	At large	5	5	5
Boise	6	6	None	Elected	People	At large	5	3	3
Total 23 cities									

¹ One member is elected for only two years, and two members for four years.

SEVENTEEN FIRST CLASS CITIES

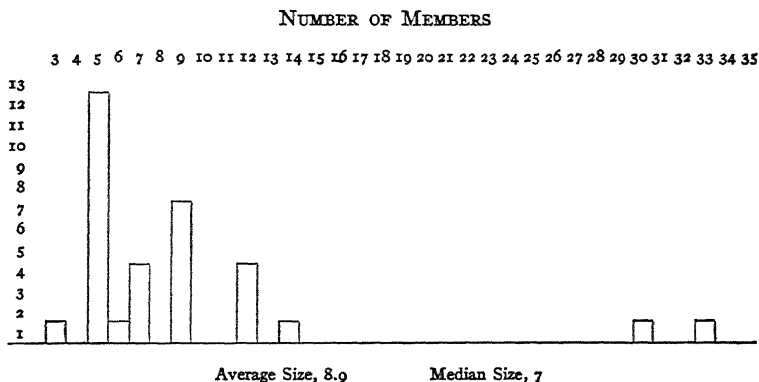
The number of cities with boards of education of various sizes is indicated in the following graph. For example, one city has a board of four members, two cities have boards of five members, and so on.



In the first class cities boards range in size from four members in San Francisco to forty-six members in New York, with an average membership for the seventeen cities of just fourteen members. There is no central tendency in the distribution: three cities have boards of seven, three of nine, and three of fifteen members. In spite of the several large boards, the median for the distribution is a little below ten.

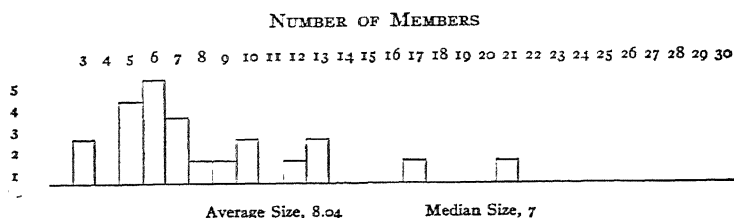
THIRTY-TWO SECOND CLASS CITIES

ARRANGED AS IN THE PRECEDING GRAPH



In the second class cities boards range in size from three members in Albany to thirty-three members in Providence, with an average membership for the thirty-two cities of 8.9 members. The most common size of boards is five members, twelve of the cities (37.5) having boards of that size. The second class cities have boards of much more uniform size than the first or the third class cities: 75 per cent of the boards in the second class cities range from five to nine members. Only two cities, Worcester and Providence, have boards of over fourteen members. The median of the distribution is seven.

TWENTY-THREE THIRD CLASS CITIES
ARRANGED AS IN THE PRECEDING GRAPH

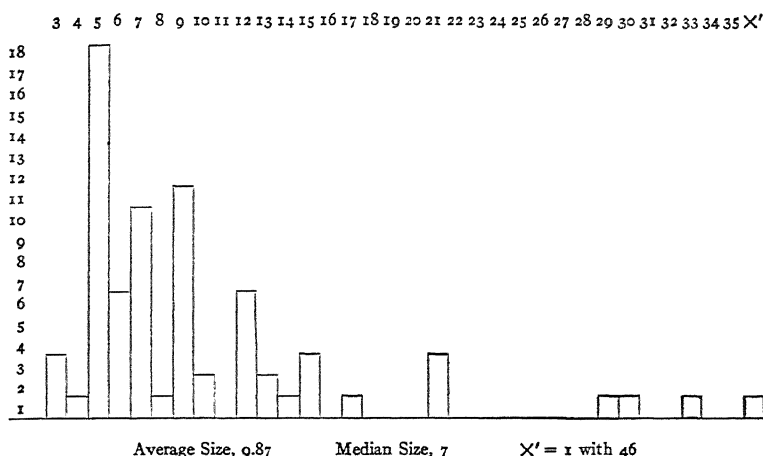


In the third class cities boards range in size from three members in Jacksonville, Fla., and Tucson, Ariz., to twenty-one members in Wheeling, W. Va. The average size of boards for this group of cities is 8.04 members. Although the median for the distribution is seven, almost 60 per cent of the cities have boards of from five to seven members.

SUMMARY TABLE FOR SEVENTY-TWO CITIES OF ALL CLASSES

ARRANGED AS IN THE PRECEDING GRAPH

NUMBER OF MEMBERS



The summary table for the seventy-two cities shows that the average size of boards of education in these cities is less than ten members. The larger cities have an average somewhat higher and the smaller cities somewhat lower than this. The median for the distribution is seven members, and the most common size is five members. Almost 70 per cent of these cities have boards with less than ten members.

THE MEMBERSHIP OF CITY BOARDS OF EDUCATION

The membership of boards of education will be considered under the following headings: (1) term of office, (2) compensation, (3) methods of selection, and (4) qualifications of members.

(1) TERM OF OFFICE

The following summary table shows the length of term of members of boards of education in the first, second, and third class cities which we are studying.

	Years					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
First class cities	0	2	5	3	1	6
Second class cities	0	1	12	10	3	5
Third class cities	0	5	8	5	1	2
Totals	0	8	25	18	5	13

The graphs on page 103 show the facts in the preceding table in more striking form. A review of these graphs for the various classes of cities shows that city school board members are selected for a minimum term of two years and a maximum term of six years. The most common term in the third class cities is six years, with three years a close second. In the second class cities the tendency is decidedly for a three or a four year term. In the third class cities the tendency is for a term of only two or three years. There is a difference of about three months in the average length of term in the first and second class cities, but the average term in the third class cities is about ten months less than in the first class cities.

The summary graph, which combines all the cities, shows that the most common term in all cities is three years, with a four year term second and a six year term third. These same facts are of interest as stated in the following table, which shows the per cent of the total number of cities in each class that is found in each year's term.

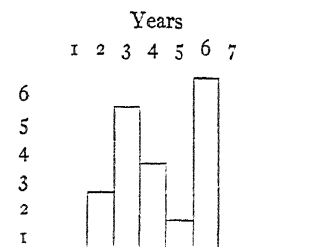
	Years					
	2	3	4	5	6	
First class cities	11.7	29.4	17.6	5.9	35.3	
Second class cities	3.2	38.7	32.2	9.6	16.1	
Third class cities	23.8	38.1	23.8	4.8	9.5	

This table shows that of the first class cities, 35.3 per cent select their school board members for a term of six years;

TERM OF OFFICE

17 First Class Cities

Average Term 4 yrs., 2 mo., 24 days

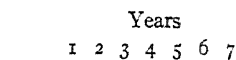
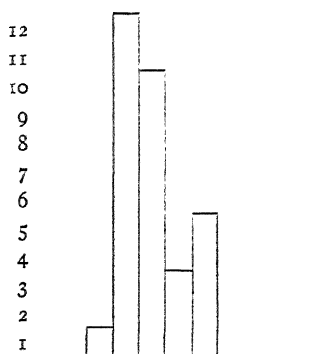


Total of 69 Cities

Average Term 3 yrs., 10 mo., 2 days

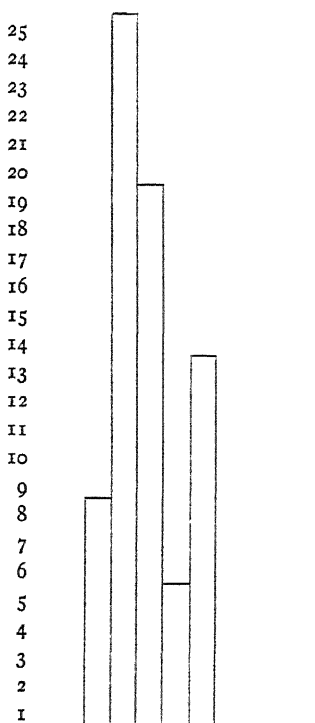
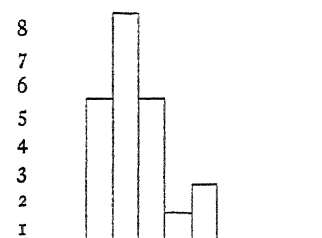
31 Second Class Cities

Average Term 3 yrs., 11 mo., 22 days



21 Third Class Cities

Average Term 3 yrs., 4 mo., 16 days



that 38.7 per cent of the second class cities select members for three years; and that 38.1 per cent of the third class cities select members for a three year term. By considering the per cent of cities of each class in any column, one can make some interesting comparisons. For example, in the two year column there are 11.7 per cent of the first class cities, 3.2 per cent of the second class cities, and 23.8 per cent of the third class cities. From this it is clear that the third class cities select school board members for a shorter term than the larger cities. This same fact is shown by the figures in the six year column, where we find 35.3 per cent of the first class cities, 16.1 per cent of the second class cities, and 9.5 per cent of the third class cities. These figures show conclusively that the larger cities select their board members for a longer term than the smaller cities.

(2) COMPENSATION

In most of the cities members of the board of education serve without financial compensation. There are, however, some important exceptions. In San Francisco board members are paid \$3,000 per year and are required to give all their time to educational service. In Rochester board members are paid \$1,200. In Memphis the president of the board receives \$600 and other members \$480 each per year. In Milwaukee each member receives \$3 per meeting for each committee meeting attended, but the total compensation is limited to \$100 per year for each member. In Los Angeles and Oakland members receive \$10 per meeting attended, but the total compensation is limited to \$40 per month. In Manchester, N. H., members receive \$25 per year. In Jacksonville, Fla. (a county board), members receive \$4 per day for services performed. In Butte, Mont., members receive \$4 per meeting attended. From this it is seen that nine of the seventy-one cities compensate

school board members for their services; that the compensation varies greatly in amount; and that except in San Francisco and Rochester the compensation is small.

(3) METHODS OF SELECTION

School board members are commonly either appointed by the mayor or elected by the people. Although the mayor usually appoints, there are instances of appointment by the courts. There are a few other methods of selection, namely, by the city commissioners who govern the city, by the city council, or by a mixed method of election and appointment. Appointment emphasizes the centralization of municipal affairs in the office of mayor, while election emphasizes direct democratic control of education by the people.

The area from which board members are selected is an important matter. Selection is from the city at large or from wards or districts as such. There is also a mixed method by which some of the members of a board are selected from the city at large and some of them from wards or districts. Members selected from the city at large represent the city as a whole, while members selected from a ward or district are inclined to feel that they represent that division of the city in the deliberations of the board.

The following chart shows the various methods of selecting board members, and the number of cities using each method.

17 first class cities	{	8 appointed	{	4 by mayor	{	3 at large
				3 by court		1 by boroughs
				1 by mayor and city		3 at large
				council		1 at large
		9 elected	9 by people			6 at large
						2 mixed methods (dist. and at large)
						1 by wards

31 second class cities	5 appointed	5 by mayor	5 at large
	22 elected	22 by people	15 at large
	4 selected	2 by city commis- sioners	3 by wards
		2 by city council	4 mixed methods
			2 at large
			2 by districts
22 third class cities	20 elected	20 by people	12 at large
	1 selected	1 by city council	6 by wards
	1 mixed method	1 by city council { elected by people appointed by governor	2 mixed methods
			1 at large
			1 by districts

The above tabulation is largely self-explanatory. Nevertheless I should like to call particular attention to some of the more significant facts which that tabulation shows.

1. Board members are appointed by the mayor in only ten cities, as compared with fifty-two cities in which they are elected by the people.

2. Appointment by the mayor is confined exclusively to the first and second class cities.

3. Members are selected from the city at large in forty-eight cities, as compared with fourteen cities in which they are selected from wards or districts of the city as such.

4. The courts select members in three cities, the city council in two cities, and the city commissioners in two cities.

(4) QUALIFICATIONS OF MEMBERS

Democratic control of education means that the people of a community shall be unrestricted in their selection of those who are to constitute the board of education and who are thus to provide education. This democratic principle prevails in varying degrees in different states, depending on the state's conception of its own obligation either to supervise local education or to leave that supervision largely

to local adjustment. The widespread application of this democratic principle accounts for the absence of any well defined legal qualifications for school board members in many states. As one superintendent put it, "Anyone who can get elected" is considered qualified for membership in the school board. This is the price we pay for exercising democratic control over education.

In school administration, as in politics, the theory is that the people are entitled to just as good school officials as they select. If the people select unsatisfactory school board members, the people alone must bear the responsibility. Under the operation of this democratic principle the schools are placed under the general direction of just as efficient or just as inefficient a board of education as the people are sagacious or indifferent enough to select. In general this is true whether the selection is by the people directly, or indirectly through appointment by the mayor.

In most cities boards of education consist of lay members specifically selected to serve on that Board. In only a few of our cities¹ are there ex-officio members. The prevailing conception is that the board of education should be directly responsible to the people for the discharge of its duties. Its members are so selected, therefore, that they may directly serve the people. Undoubtedly members so selected bring greater interest, and in general are in a position to devote more time to educational problems than the mayor or the president of the city council, who finds his place on some school boards solely because he holds political office.

On the eligibility qualifications of school board members the Pennsylvania law² covers the general items which

¹ Providence, R. I., Atlanta, Ga., Portland, Me., Manchester, N. H.

² "Any citizen of this Commonwealth having a good moral character, being twenty-one (21) years of age or upwards, and having been a resident of the dis-

are in whole or in part specified in laws of other states. Besides moral character, the stated qualifications cover (a) age, (b) residence, and (c) exclusion from holding certain other offices. In the following pages we shall consider the typical (and in some cases the unusual) eligibility requirements for board members in selected cities.

(a) *Age*

An age requirement for school board members is not specified in many states, but in some it is indirectly established through the requirement that candidates for the school board shall be qualified voters. In Pennsylvania the minimum age is twenty-one years.¹ In Indianapolis² and Nashville³ the minimum age is twenty-five years. In Louisville⁴ and St. Louis⁵ the minimum age is thirty years.

(b) *Residence*

Naturally the laws of the various states require that candidates for the school board shall be residents of the city. In cities where members must be selected from wards or districts as such, they must be residents of those wards or districts, because the prevailing idea of such a method of selection seems to be that the member so selected represents that ward in the deliberations of the board.

The term of residence varies in different cities from five months in Rochester⁶ to five years in Nashville.⁷ The

trict for at least one (1) year prior to the date of his election or appointment, shall be eligible to the office of School Director therein. Providing that any person holding the office of Mayor, chief burgess, county commissioner, district attorney, city, borough, or township treasurer, city councilman, township commissioner, road supervisor, tax collector, comptroller, auditor or constable, shall not be eligible as a School Director in this Commonwealth." — Law of 1911, sec. 207.

¹ School Code, 1911, sec. 207.

² Session Laws, 1899, p. 434, sec. 2.

⁴ Laws of 1910, sec. 4.

⁶ *Ibid.*, art. i, sec. 16.

³ City Charter, chap. i, sec. 50.

⁵ City Charter, sec. 4.

⁷ *Ibid.*, chap. i, sec. 50.

following cities have the common requirement of a minimum of three years of residence: Boston,¹ Newark,² St. Louis,³ Louisville,⁴ and Indianapolis.⁵

(c) *Exclusion from holding certain other offices.*

The Pennsylvania law⁶ provides that members of the school board cannot at the same time hold the office of "Mayor, chief burgess, county commissioner, road supervisor, tax collector, comptroller, auditor or constable." Rochester's city charter⁷ provides that members of the board cannot "at the same time hold more than one city office." Kentucky laws⁸ provide that persons are ineligible for the board of education if they hold any office under the city, district, county, or state government, or the United States government, or any foreign government. The law⁹ creating the school board in Indianapolis provides that board members are ineligible to hold "any elective or appointive office under such Board of School Commissioners, and under the government of such city while holding membership in said Board."

(d) *Other qualifications*

In Kentucky a board member must be a housekeeper, or a real estate owner in his city; he "must not be interested in any contract with the Board"; nor can he have "a father, son, brother, wife, daughter or sister" employed as teacher "or in any capacity" by the board of education.¹⁰

In New Jersey and in New Orleans it is specified that board members must be able to read and write. In Omaha and St. Louis members must be resident tax-payers. In

¹ Acts of 1905, chap. 349, sec. 1.

² City Charter, sec. 4.

³ Session Laws, 1899, p. 434, sec. 2.

⁴ Art. i, sec. 26.

⁵ Session Laws, 1899, p. 434, sec. 2.

⁶ General School Law, sec. 47.

⁷ Laws of 1910, sec. 4.

⁸ Laws of 1911, sec. 207.

⁹ Laws of 1910, sec. 4.

¹⁰ Laws of 1910, sec. 4.

New Haven not more than four of the seven members can belong to the same political party. In Wilmington, Del., a member must possess \$1,000 worth of real property. In Meridian, Miss., a member must be "a patron of the public schools."

It is apparent in the foregoing discussion that the qualifications of school board members have not been treated exhaustively. Rather it has been my purpose merely to illustrate the typical qualifications in representative cities. I have shown that the typical school board member is a layman selected for this particular position, and is required to be at least twenty-one years old and in some cases at least thirty years old; he is also a resident of his city, and in some cases a resident of a particular ward or district, from a few months to five years, with three years the usual time; and he is excluded from holding any other city office while he is a school board member. Women are eligible to membership on the board of education in all states where they have the right to vote for board members.

THE COMMITTEE ORGANIZATION OF CITY BOARDS

Most Boards Organized into Committees. The organization of the board of education for the purpose of appointing teachers is naturally only a part of the complete organization of the board for carrying on its business. The members of most boards are organized into standing committees, to which are assigned the general supervision of the larger phases of the business for the discharge of which the board as a whole is responsible. Where there are only three standing committees, they are usually finance, instruction, and buildings. When there are more committees, each of these three large divisions or phases of school administration is subdivided, sometimes many times.

Transacting Business through Committees. When a board transacts its business through committees, the stated meetings of the board are largely given over to hearing reports of standing committees. Usually when new business is presented to the board, it must be referred to the proper committee before it can be considered by the board. This referring by the board may be with power to act, in which case the board may never formally hear from the matter again. Or the referring may be for consideration and report, in which case the committee makes a report which carries with it a recommendation to the board for the disposal of the business. The formal acceptance by the board of the committee's report carries with it the approval of its accompanying recommendation. When nominations of candidates for teaching positions made by the superintendent go to a committee of the board, they are dealt with as any other item of business. The committee on teachers approves of the nomination and sends the report along to the board, which adopts it. By this process the nominees of the committee or superintendent become teachers in the city system.

Some Boards which Have no Standing Committees. However, there are a few notable exceptions to the general proposition that boards are organized into standing committees. The boards in Boston, Albany, and Rochester, of the larger cities, and in Meridian, Miss., Sioux Falls, S. D., and Tucson, Ariz., of the smaller cities, transact their business without standing committees. It is an interesting fact that the boards in these cities are composed of five members or less. All school business in each city is carried on by the board acting as a whole. From the experience of these cities it is clear that it is not impossible or impracticable for a small board to transact its business without the assistance of standing committees.

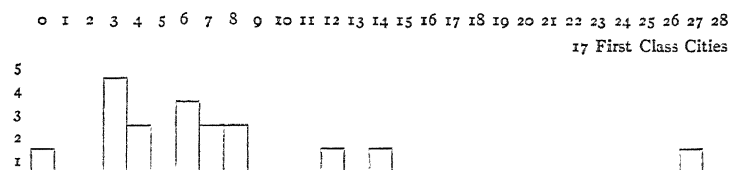
Varying Conceptions Shown in Organization of Standing

Committees. Probably no other single feature of the board's organization reveals better the varying conceptions held by boards of education of their functions and the proper methods of discharging them than the organization and definition of functions of their standing committees. A detailed study of the rules of boards covering the organization and duties of standing committees would reveal some interesting conceptions of school administration. But we are here concerned merely with the standing committees in general, as a means by which the board carries on its business. We are concerned in particular with the committee on teachers, as a participant in the appointment of teachers. We shall consider, therefore, these topics: (a) the number of standing committees into which boards are divided; (b) the average size of standing committees; and (c) the irresponsibility of standing committees in general and of the committee on teachers in particular.

(a) The number of standing committees into which boards are divided

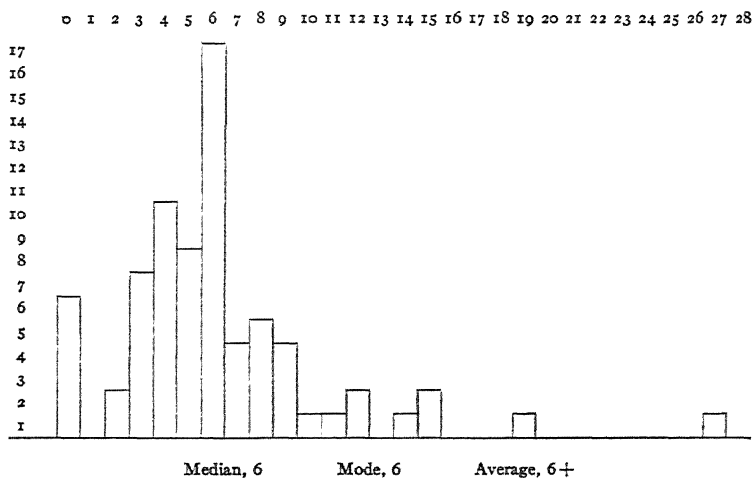
The number of standing committees in each class of cities is indicated by the graphs on page 113. The first graph shows that one city has no standing committees, that four cities have three committees, that two have four committees, and so on. The following facts are worthy of special attention: there are cities of all sizes in which the board is not organized into standing committees; the number of standing committees of the board in each class of cities is high; among the first class cities one (Cincinnati) has twenty-seven standing committees; among the second class cities one (Providence) has nineteen; and among the third class cities Portland, Me., and Wilmington, Del., each has fifteen standing committees. From three to six standing committees for each board are the most common.

NUMBER OF STANDING COMMITTEES



SUMMARY FOR 72 CITIES

NUMBER OF STANDING COMMITTEES



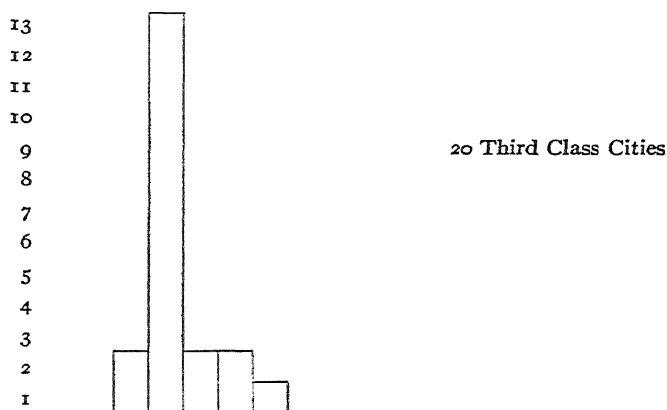
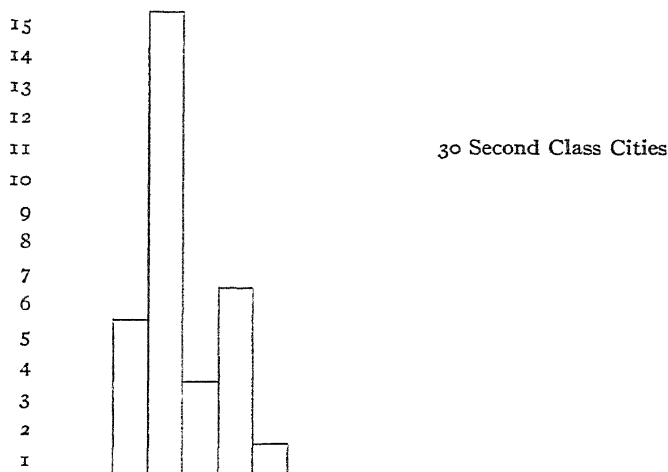
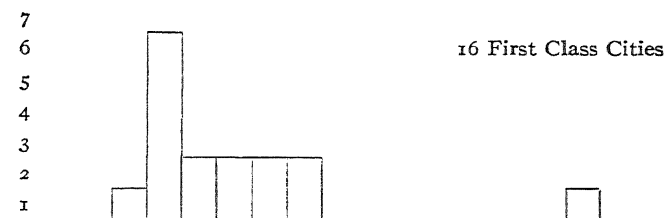
There is no correlation between the size of the board of education and the number of standing committees into which the board is organized for business. Some small boards have no committees and some have several. Boston's board of five members is not organized into committees, while New Orleans' board of the same size has four standing committees of three members each. The same is true of larger boards. Newark's board of nine members has three standing committees with an average of six members each. Philadelphia and Pittsburgh, in the same state, having boards of the same size, are organized very differently: Philadelphia has eight standing committees of about six members each, while Pittsburgh has only three standing committees of seven members each. Cincinnati with a board of twenty-nine members has twice as many standing committees as New York with a board of forty-six members. In Cincinnati there is a chairmanship of a committee for practically every member of the board. What has been said about first class cities is also true of smaller cities. The number of committees ranges from four or five in many cases to fifteen in Portland, Me., and nineteen in Providence. The small boards still keep up the traditional committee organization of the larger boards which they have superseded.

(b) *The average size of standing committees*

The size of the standing committees does not vary as much as the number of committees. The number of members on the standing committee is determined to some extent by the number of members on the board. Where there are standing committees, each member is given one or more assignments. From the following graphs it will be seen that committees most often average about three members, with no committees with more than seven members except in

AVERAGE SIZE OF ALL COMMITTEES

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17



Chicago, where there are committees of fifteen members. The average size of all committees in the sixty-three cities is less than four members.

The committee on teachers is usually equal to or larger than the average size of other standing committees. Boards of education show their conception of the relative importance of this committee by making it one of the largest committees of the board. The graphs, based on the figures in the tabulations on pages 93-98, differ so little from the graphs on the size of committees in general that it is not necessary to include them.

(c) *The irresponsibility of standing committees in general and of the committee on teachers in particular*

Whatever one's assumption may be concerning the legal power or general influence of a standing committee, a careful study of its work in the light of effective school administration can lead only to the inevitable conclusion that the committee form of organization of the board of education is based on an erroneous conception of the functions of the board and of the proper method of discharging them. Consider as an illustration the type of appointment of teachers in which the standing committee of the board on teachers approves the nominations of the superintendent before the board makes the appointments.¹ Assume that the committee exercises the largest possible influence in the appointment; that it influences the superintendent to make proper nominations; that it never approves the nominations of unworthy candidates; that it never fails to approve the nomination of satisfactory candidates; and that the board seldom or never fails to adopt the committee's recommendations. In such a case, no matter how the rules may read, the committee really appoints the teachers,

¹ See Type 5, p. 26.

because, as in most cases of committee reports, the board's approval is merely a matter of form.

Assume, on the other hand, that the committee's approval of the nominations is only a formal matter; that the superintendent gives little or no attention to the committee; and that the board itself scrutinizes carefully the nominations of the superintendent. In this case, obviously, the committee has little influence in making appointments. Between these two extremes of authority or influence which a committee may exercise there are many possible steps of gradation. But my contention is that any arrangement which gives a standing committee of the board any authority to participate in the appointment of teachers is an unfortunate arrangement. My contention is based on the following propositions: (1) the small standing committee is likely to play a disproportionately large part in the transaction of the board's business; (2) the committee form of organization increases materially the opportunities for the exercise of pernicious influences; and (3) the committee system of organization violates four fundamental principles of effective school administration: (*a*) the duties of the separate committees of the board cannot be so defined that overlapping of authority is avoided; (*b*) therefore the responsibility of each committee cannot be adequately fixed; (*c*) hence the accountability of each committee cannot be insisted on; and (*d*) the committee system tends to confuse lay control with professional and executive management. These propositions will be discussed in turn.

1. The standing committee of the board consisting of only a few members is likely to play a part in the transaction of the business of the board altogether out of proportion to the membership of the committee. A study of the size of standing committees of boards in the seventy-three cities under consideration shows that in more than 80 per cent

of the cases each standing committee is made up of less than a majority of the members of the board. In 10 per cent of the cases the board consists of five members, and each committee is composed of three members. In these cases it is impossible to say whether the size of the committee was deliberately fixed so as to include a majority of the membership of the board, or whether other circumstances brought about the same result. In the remaining 10 per cent of the cases each committee is so organized as to include a majority of the board members. When a committee thus constituted makes a report, if it be a unanimous report as it ought to be, it really is the board's report, because a majority of the board have already approved it. For example, in New York there are forty-eight members of the board, but there are seldom more than from five to seven or nine members on any standing committee. Couple this fact with the other proposition set forth earlier in this discussion, namely, that the reports of standing committees are usually, through force of necessity, adopted by the board without discussion, and you have the facts which make it plain that a committee organization really results in the transaction of the board's business by a number of standing committees, made up of a minority of the board members.

2. The committee form of organization increases materially the opportunities for the exercise of pernicious influence in carrying on the work of the board. Meetings of committees can easily be held behind closed doors, even though such meetings by the whole board are not tolerated by the public. Personal influences can be brought to bear on a committee in a closed meeting that would never be attempted in a public meeting before the whole board. Committees are usually appointed by the president of the board. The organization of committees is not usually re-

viewed by the board as a whole, and may or may not meet with its approval. If the president so desires, it is comparatively easy to make assignments in such a way as to make the committees serve his own personal wishes or those of some other member.

3. The committee system of organization violates four fundamental principles of effective school administration. (a) As has been pointed out, the number of standing committees into which boards are divided varies greatly. A careful study makes it perfectly obvious that they are not organized according to any recognized or recognizable principles. This being the case, the assignment of duties and the definition of the authority of committees cannot be satisfactorily made. In the apparent haphazard organization of committees the functions of one overlap the functions of another. In some cases it is even difficult for the board to decide to which committee an item of new business ought to be referred. This impossibility of defining the functions of each committee, so that their functions are mutually exclusive, is not so important in itself as are the consequences to which it leads.

(b) The logical result of not being able to define definitely the functions of each committee is that the responsibility for the discharge of any function cannot be definitely fixed. Consider again the case of the appointment of teachers in which the superintendent, a committee of the board, and the board itself participate. Legally the board of education is responsible for the employment of suitable teachers. But for the discharging of this function it delegates part of that responsibility to the superintendent of schools, and part of it to a standing committee of its own members. As has been shown, in many cases the rules do not define clearly, and in some cases do not define at all, the part which each plays in making the appointment.

This being the case, the board cannot hold either the superintendent or the committee responsible for the proper performance of its part in the procedure.

(c) The result of not being able to fix responsibility for the discharge of any function makes it impossible to hold each agency accountable for its share of the responsibility. A standing committee of the board cannot, from the nature of the circumstances, be held responsible for its conduct either by the public or by the board. The board of education is the representative of the people of the city as citizens of the state. As such it can and should be held strictly responsible for all activities carried on under its direction. The public should not be expected or required to go beyond the board to fix responsibility. The board should be required to assume complete responsibility. Any other policy or the exercise of any other principle of administration in this particular matter results only in confusion and demoralization. If the public looks or is encouraged to look beyond the board of education to a committee to fix the responsibility for the appointment of an inefficient teacher, where shall such a policy end? Why should not the public look beyond the school board in other matters, such as the kind of desks that should be bought, or the kind of books to be used, or the time of day for a recess period? But if the public should not hold the committee responsible for its acts, why cannot the board do so? The board cannot because the committee is a part of the board, and in case its conduct is called in question the accused members (the committee) would have a vote on the question of their own guilt. Obviously such a procedure would be a farce. Hence, there is, in reality, no qualified judge of the committee's work. The board to which the committee is responsible is disqualified because of its inherent relationship to the defendant.

(d) The committee system of the board of education tends to confuse lay control with professional and executive management. The public schools belong to the people. The people should control the schools through some agency created directly or indirectly by the will of the people. In the very nature of the case those persons selected by the people to constitute the board of education will usually be laymen. It is the business of this lay board to exercise general control over the school system and to determine educational policies. The professional and executive management should be delegated by the board to those professional educators of its own selection whose education, training, and experience qualify them to direct and manage a system of public education. The committee system interferes with this differentiation of the functions of the board and of its professional officers in that a large part of the work delegated to every committee of the board is executive work which should be performed by executive officers. It is difficult, if not quite impossible, to maintain this essential division of labor between the board and its officers under the committee system of organization.

(d) *Summary*

In the foregoing discussion we have maintained that, however great or however small the influence of the committee of the board may be in the matter of appointing teachers, the committee system of organization for the transaction of the board's business is unwise for several reasons.

The few members of a standing committee play altogether too large a part in the decisions of the board, as shown by the fact that (1) more than 80 per cent of the committees are minority committees, and (2) the reports of committees whether large or small, through necessity, are seldom discussed by the whole board.

The committee organization permits the exercise of pernicious influences, because (1) of the prevailing method of appointment of members by the president of the board, because (2) of its closed meetings, and because (3) it is easier to deal unscrupulously with a small committee than it is with a whole board.

The committee system violates four principles of effective administration, as follows: (1) The duties of each committee cannot be clearly defined, because the functions of committees overlap, due to the fact that committees are usually organized according to no known principle of organization. (2) This makes it impossible to fix the responsibility of each committee, because no one knows just what its duties are. (3) The absence of any well defined responsibilities makes it impossible to hold the committee responsible for its acts. (4) The committee system tends to confuse lay control with professional and executive management, because the prevailing practice is to refer the discharge of executive functions to committees of the board rather than to the board's professional executives. For these reasons the practice of boards of education of organizing into standing committees for the transaction of their business must be condemned.

CHAPTER VII

CHANGES IN THE SIZE OF BOARDS OF EDUCATION, IN METHODS OF SELECTING MEMBERS, AND IN THEIR TERMS OF OFFICE IN TWENTY-EIGHT CITIES, FROM 1893 TO 1913

WHAT have been the changes during the last twenty years in such important features of boards of education as size, methods of selecting members and their terms of office? An answer to this question would not only be of interest in itself, but it would also furnish a basis for judging what the future development of boards of education is likely to be. While it is not possible within the limits of this monograph to indicate the changes in the boards of education in all the cities included in this study, it is possible, and will be profitable, to indicate some important changes which have taken place in the boards in twenty-eight important cities.

In 1893 the late Commissioner Draper of the state of New York, then superintendent of instruction in Cleveland, published an article on "Plans of Organization for School Purposes in Large Cities."¹ In that article Dr. Draper gives the size of boards of education, the methods of selecting members, and the terms of office in all the cities of the United States which at that time had a population of over 100,000. The publication of these facts by Dr. Draper makes it easily possible to compare them with similar facts for the same cities in 1913, just twenty years later. The comparison will be made under the following headings: size of boards of education; methods of selecting members; and term of office of members.

¹ *Educational Review*, vol. vi, pp. 1-16, 1893.

THE SIZE OF BOARDS OF EDUCATION

Size of Boards in 1893 and in 1913. The following table shows the size of the board of education in every city of over 100,000 in 1893 and the size of the board in the same cities in 1913.

Cities	1893	1913	Cities	1893	1913
New York	21	46	Newark	30	9
Brooklyn	45		Minneapolis	7	7
Chicago	21	21	Jersey City	7	9
Philadelphia	37	15	Louisville	24	5
St. Louis	21	12	Omaha	15	12
Boston	24	5	Rochester	20	5
Baltimore	23	9	St. Paul	7	7
San Francisco	12	4	Kansas City	6	6
Cincinnati	30	7	Providence	33	33
Cleveland	7	7	Denver	6	5
Buffalo	No bd.	No bd.	Indianapolis	11	5
New Orleans	20	5	Totals	603	294
Pittsburgh	37	15	Average no. of	22.33	11.76
Allegheny	78		members		
Washington	9	9			
Detroit	16	21			
Milwaukee	36	15			

Reduction in Size of Boards in General. It should be noted that the city of Brooklyn has become a part of greater New York, and also that the former school district of Allegheny has become a part of Pittsburgh. As indicated, Buffalo has no school board. The table shows that the average size of boards of education in the twenty-seven cities in 1893 was twenty-two members, whereas in 1913, in twenty-five¹ of the same cities, the average was only eleven members, or half as many. This absolute reduction in the number of members on school boards becomes

¹ Brooklyn and Allegheny are not included in the second list, for the reason stated above.

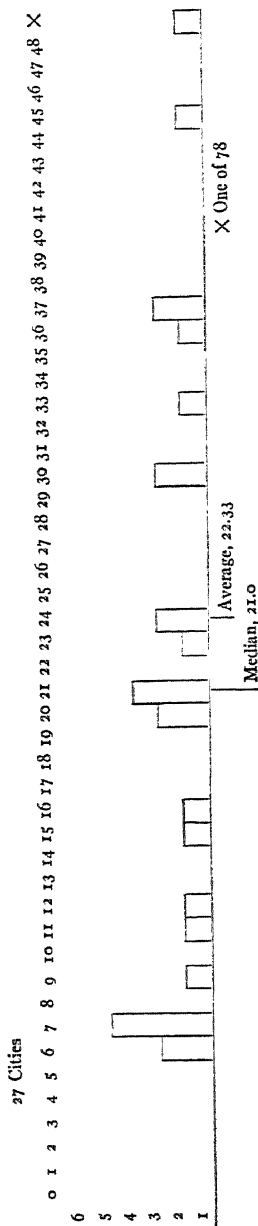
still more significant when it is pointed out that relatively this reduction has been much greater because of the increase in size of the cities during the period. The population of these cities has increased from 9,662,643 in 1893 to 16,853,135 in 1913. That is to say, in 1893 there was one board member for every 16,024 inhabitants, whereas in 1913 there was one board member for every 57,914 inhabitants. To state the same fact in another way, one board member represented 16,024 people in school matters in 1893, whereas one board member represented 57,914 people in 1913, a truly remarkable increase in his representative responsibility.

Reduction in Size Contemporaneous with Increased Responsibility. This change to smaller boards of education has taken place during two decades when the educational activities in these cities have been increasing at an extraordinary rate. Instead of the present smaller boards having less important duties to perform, they have larger problems to solve and are responsible for a greater variety of educational and administrative functions. Many more pupils have to be provided for, more school houses have to be built, and more teachers have to be appointed than twenty years ago. In addition new demands in education have very materially increased the variety of the present educational activities, and hence have increased the responsibilities of boards of education. Chief among these new demands, to cite only one illustration, is that for all kinds of vocational education. This one phase of public education to-day has created many problems of educational administration with which boards of education of two decades ago had nothing whatever to do.

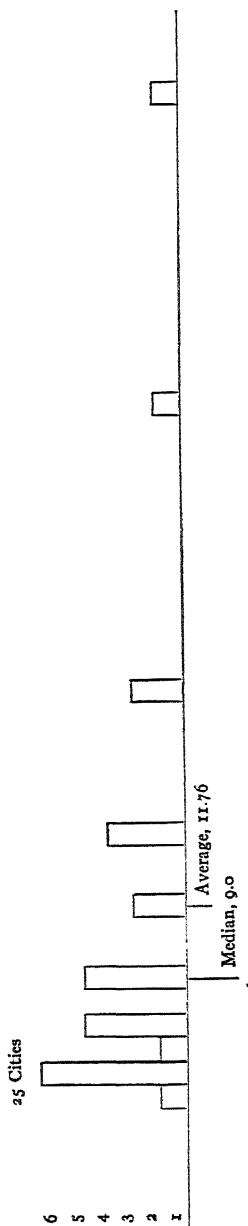
How much the Size of Boards has Changed. The following diagram shows how much the size of boards of education has changed during the past twenty years.

SIZE OF THE BOARDS

1893



1913



These diagrams show that whereas the median size of boards in 1913 was twenty-one members, it was only nine members in 1893; and that, as has already been stated above, the average size of boards has been reduced from twenty-two members to eleven members. In this group of twenty-five cities there are only two cities (New York and Providence) which have boards with more than twenty-one members, as compared with ten such cities in 1893. While New York now has the largest board of education of any city in the United States, it is much smaller than the combined boards of the former cities of Brooklyn and New York. Providence, with a board of thirty-three members, is the only other city in this group of twenty-five cities which has a board of education with more than twenty-one members. Through the consolidation of the school districts of Allegheny and Pittsburgh, two boards of seventy-eight and thirty-seven members respectively were abolished and a single board of fifteen members was substituted. In 1893 there were no boards of education with fewer than six members. In 1913 seven out of twenty-five cities, or almost a third, have boards of four or five members. These twenty-five cities now have boards of five members more often than any other number. Sixty-four per cent of these cities now have boards of nine members or less.

The further study of the comparative size of boards in 1893 and in 1913 will be considered in detail under the headings (a) increases, (b) decreases, and (c) no changes.

(a) *Increases.* Increases in the size of boards of education among these twenty-five cities during the past twenty years have taken place in only two cities, namely, Detroit and Jersey City. In Detroit the increase is due to the growth of the city and the resulting increase in the number of wards into which the city is divided. The members are

elected by wards, and as the number of wards increases the number of members of the board of education increases automatically. Thus does a purely political matter directly affect the machinery of school administration.

In 1893 the board of education in Jersey City¹ consisted of seven members appointed by the mayor, one at large and one each from the six school districts into which the city was divided. In 1895 the city was divided into twelve wards and the board was automatically increased to thirteen members, one at large and one from each ward. In 1912 the plan was changed, so that now there are nine members, all appointed by the mayor from the city at large. Thus the ward method of selection is also responsible for the increase in size of the board in Jersey City.

(b) *Decreases.* Besides the decrease in the number of members on the board of education in New York and Pittsburgh, which has already been explained, the boards have been decreased in size in seventeen out of the twenty-five cities under consideration. The amount of reduction has ranged from a single member in the case of Denver to twenty-three members in the case of Cincinnati. The diagram on page 129 shows the amount of decrease in each city.

From this chart it is seen that most of the decreases have resulted in a board with less than ten members: two-thirds of the fifteen cities concerned now have boards with less than ten members. Two cities reduced their boards to twelve members and two to fifteen members. Six cities reduced the number of members to five, which is the most common number to which cities have reduced their boards during the past twenty years.

(c) *No Changes.* Of the twenty-five cities under con-

¹ These facts were furnished by the present superintendent, Mr. Henry Snyder, in a letter dated January 21, 1914.

sideration, seven have made no change in the size of their boards of education during the past two decades. A glance at the table will show the reason: five of these cities already had in 1893 what may be called small boards of education. All of these six cities, except Providence and Chicago, had boards of less than ten members. Providence and Chicago had boards of thirty-three and twenty-one members respectively in 1893 and have not changed during the period of twenty years. Washington comes next with a board of nine members, Cleveland, Minneapolis, and St. Paul next with boards of seven members each, and Kansas City last with a board of six members.

Summary. From the above exposition it is clear that in the cities considered there has been a decided decrease in the number of members constituting the boards of education. This decrease has taken place during a period of two decades when boards of education have had continuously to assume larger responsibilities. The decreases have been, in most cases, from boards of twenty or more to boards of nine or less. The number of members to which the boards were most commonly reduced was five. From the above there does not appear to be any relation between the size of the city and the size to which the board of education shall be reduced. The above facts would indicate that, in general, boards of education are tending toward a membership of five; at present there are several boards of seven and nine members and a single board of four members.

THE METHODS OF SELECTING MEMBERS

What were the methods of selecting members in 1893? What are the methods in the same cities in 1913? What are the specific changes which have been made? These questions will be considered in order.

(1) METHOD OF SELECTING MEMBERS IN 1893 AND IN 1913
COMPARED

The following tabulation shows how members were selected, by whom, and whether at large or by wards or districts in 1893 and in 1913.

1893				
Cities	How Chosen	By Whom	At Large	By Wards
New York	Appointed	Mayor	At large	
Brooklyn	Appointed	Mayor	At large	
Chicago	Appointed	Mayor ¹	At large	
Philadelphia	Appointed	Judges		By wards
St. Louis ²	Elected	People	$\frac{1}{3}$ at large	$\frac{2}{3}$ by wards
Boston	Elected	People	At large	
Baltimore	Selected	Council		By wards
San Francisco	Elected	People	At large	
Cincinnati	Elected	People		By wards
Cleveland	Elected	People	At large	
New Orleans ²	Selected	$\frac{2}{3}$ council $\frac{1}{3}$ state board of education		By districts
Pittsburgh	Selected	District boards		By districts
Allegheny	Elected	People		By wards
Washington	Selected	Comm'rs of D. C.		By districts
Detroit	Elected	People		By wards
Milwaukee	Selected	Council		By wards
Minneapolis	Elected	People	At large	
Jersey City	Appointed	Mayor		By wards
Louisville	Elected	People		By wards
Omaha	Elected	People	At large	
Rochester	Elected	People		By wards
St. Paul	Appointed	Mayor	At large	
Kansas City	Elected	People	At large	
Providence	Elected	People		By wards
Denver	Elected	People	At large	
Indianapolis	Elected	People		By districts
Newark	Elected	People		By wards

¹ Approved by the city council.

² Considered as having two methods of selecting members, as indicated.

1913

Cities	How Chosen	By Whom	At Large	By Wards
New York	Appointed	Mayor		By boroughs
Chicago	Appointed	Mayor ¹	At large	
Philadelphia	Appointed	Judges	At large	
St. Louis	Elected	People	At large	
Boston	Elected	People	At large	
Baltimore	Appointed	Mayor	At large	
San Francisco	Appointed	Mayor	At large	
Cincinnati	Elected	People	At large	
Cleveland	Elected	People	At large	
New Orleans	Elected	People	At large	
Pittsburgh	Appointed	Judges	At large	
Washington	Appointed	Judges	At large	
Detroit	Elected	People		By wards
Milwaukee	Elected	People	At large	
Newark	Appointed	Mayor	At large	
Minneapolis	Elected	People	At large	
Jersey City	Appointed	Mayor	At large	
Louisville	Elected	People	At large	
Omaha	Elected	People		By wards
Rochester	Elected	People	At large	
St. Paul	Appointed	Mayor	At large	
Kansas City	Elected	People	At large	
Providence	Elected	People		By wards
Denver	Elected	People	At large	
Indianapolis	Elected	People	At large	

The following is a summary of the table on page 131 on the methods of selecting members of the board of education in 1893

Of the 27 cities in 1893	6 appointed	4 by mayor	3 at large
		1 by mayor and city council	1 by wards
		1 by city judges	1 at large
	16 elected	16 by people	1 by wards
			8 at large
	6 selected		8 by wards or districts
		3 by council ²	3 by wards
		1 by commissioners of D. C.	1 by wards
		1 by district boards	1 by districts
		1 by state board of education	1 by districts

¹ Approved by the city council.

² New Orleans had two methods of selecting board members: two-fifths by council and three-fifths by the state board of education.

The following is a summary of the table on page 132 on the methods of selecting members of the board of education in 1913

Of the 25 cities in 1913	{ 10 appointed 15 elected	6 by mayor	{ 5 at large
		1 by mayor and council	1 by boroughs
		3 by judges	1 at large
		15 by people	3 at large
			{ 12 at large
			3 by wards

Summary. In 1893 sixteen cities elected school board members by direct vote of the people, while by 1913 this number had been decreased by one. In 1893 the mayor appointed school board members in five cities, while in 1913 this number had been increased to seven cities. In 1893 twelve cities selected members from the city at large and fifteen cities from wards or districts. By 1913 twenty-one cities were selecting members from the city at large and only four cities from wards or districts. Viewing the above tabulations as a whole, it will be seen that there were ten distinct methods of selecting school board members in 1893, and that in 1913 there were only six different methods. Selection by city council, by district boards of education, by the state board of education, and by commissioners of the District of Columbia has been eliminated during the past twenty years in these twenty-seven cities.

(2) SPECIFIC CHANGES THAT HAVE TAKEN PLACE

Thus far we have considered the number of changes which have taken place in the methods of selecting board members during the last twenty years in the twenty-seven cities under consideration. We shall now consider the actual changes which have been made. For example, it is desirable to know not only that changes have been made, but also whether, for example, changes are from appointment by

the mayor to election by the people or vice versa. If an analysis of the changes show a well defined trend, we may be able to establish a basis for determining what method of selection is most likely to become general or approximately so. The changes will be considered under two heads: (a) how members are chosen and by whom, and (b) whether they are chosen from the city at large or by wards.

(a) *How members are chosen and by whom*

Of the twenty-eight cities in 1893, two¹ have lost their identity, twenty have undergone no changes in respect to the method of selecting board members, and six have experienced changes. The cities and the changes are indicated in the following table.

1893		1913
Cities	From	To
Baltimore	Election by city council	Appointment by mayor
Milwaukee	Election by city council	Election by people
San Francisco	Election by people	Appointment by mayor
Newark	Election by people	Appointment by mayor
Washington	Election by D. C. commissioners	Appointment by judges
Pittsburgh	Election by district boards of education	Appointment by judges

The result of these changes from the standpoint of the methods employed can best be indicated by the table on page 135. In the first column are indicated the various methods of selection involved; in the second column the number of cities gained for each method during the twenty year period; and in the third column the number of cities lost to each method. The methods are arranged in the order of greatest growth.

¹ Brooklyn and Allegheny.

Methods	Gained	Lost
Appointment by mayor	3	0
Appointment by judges	2	0
Election by people	1	2
Election by district boards	0	1
Election by D. C. commissioners	0	1
Election by city council	0	2

Selection by City Council Eliminated. The facts in the above tabulation need some detailed consideration. In the first place it should be noted that in these cities, as far as the board of education is concerned, the city council has lost its former power as an agency in school affairs. Chicago is the only one of the twenty-five cities that permits the city council to have anything whatever to do with the selection of members of the board of education. And in Chicago the city council only approves the appointments made by the mayor. The abolition of the city council from participation in the selection of board members indicates progress, and this progress is entirely in accord with the decreased participation of the city council generally in the administration of city affairs.¹

Increased Selection by Judges Probably Exceptional. The selection of board members in Washington by the commissioners of the District of Columbia, and in Pittsburgh by district boards of education, were special methods of selection, and hence need not demand our special consideration. The significant fact in the changes in these two cities is that appointment is now placed in the hands of judges. Whether appointment by judges is likely to become a more common method of selecting board members is a difficult question to answer. In 1893 Philadelphia was the only city in which this method existed. By 1913 Washing-

¹ See Goodnow, *Municipal Government*, chap. x.

ton and Pittsburgh had been added. Apparently the most significant reason for the adoption of this method of selection is a political one. In its effort to get the schools out of politics and to keep them out, each city has lodged the power of appointing board members in that agency of our local government which is most generally recognized as being farthest removed from local politics, namely, the courts. Assuming that any administrative agency in our democratic form of government feels responsibility to the source which created it, the fundamental objection to this method of selection is that it makes the board of education responsible to the court rather than to the people for whom schools and education are provided. Inasmuch as these are the only cities in the United States, of those covered in this study, which have adopted this method of selection, it is fair to assume that this method is likewise an exceptional one rather than one which is likely to be generally adopted.

Election by People Loses; Appointment by Mayor Gains. Election by the people as a method of selection has lost ground during the past two decades, and appointment by the mayor has made the greatest gains. Whether this is indicative of the most likely future development is also difficult to say. Taking into consideration the fact that, in the second class and third class cities considered in this study, a decided preference is shown for the method of election by the people, one would be justified in concluding that our experience in the application of these two methods has not been sufficient to determine the advantage of the one over the other. The tendency indicated during the past twenty years does show that these are the two most common methods of selection, and with a corresponding future development during a similar period, these two methods will practically, if not exclusively, occupy the field. Which of them will ultimately be the solution of the problem,

if one method is to be the solution, will have to be determined after more experience.

Summary. Concerning how and by whom members of the board of education are selected, the following facts are significant: the comparatively few changes in the methods in use during the twenty year period; the relatively few methods now in use; the increase in the method of appointment by the mayor; the small loss in the method of election by the people; the increase in the method of appointment by judges; and the elimination of city council as a direct agency in selecting board members.

(b) Chosen from the city at large or by wards

In 1893 members of the board were selected by wards or districts in sixteen cities and from the city at large in only twelve cities.¹ In 1913 members were selected by wards or boroughs in only four cities and at large in twenty-one cities. The changes which have taken place have all been from ward or district selection to selection from the city at large, except in the two cases of Omaha and New York. In Omaha in 1893, according to Draper, members were elected by the people from the city at large, but in 1913 the members were elected by the people by wards. Here is one case of a deliberate change during the past twenty years from a method which is apparently gaining in popularity to a method which is becoming obsolete. That the change has proven unsatisfactory is shown by information obtained from a former superintendent of schools in Omaha² and from a business man of the city³ who knows what the results

¹ St. Louis selected members partly by wards and partly at large, so that this city is counted with both groups of cities.

² Mr. Carroll G. Pearse, now president of the state normal school at Milwaukee, letter of January 6, 1914.

³ C. S. Hayward, president of the Hayward Brothers Shoe Company, Omaha, letter of January 16, 1914.

have been. The law was changed to provide for the election of school board members by wards as a democratic political measure.¹ At the time the change was made the legislature and the state administration were Democratic, although usually Republican.¹ The measure did not, at the time, meet with the approval of the people whose opinions were of most value concerning school matters in Omaha.² "It is certain that the schools have not been better managed since than they were before; there are many people in the city who think that the methods of management and the quality of the membership of the Board has very greatly deteriorated."²

The results of the change as viewed by Mr. Hayward can best be presented in a paragraph taken from his letter:

The result of electing members by wards has been to place the Board of Education in the worst kind of ward politics. Under the old law of electing members at large it was possible to get good representative business men each year to consent to become members of the Board of Education.

In the case of New York the local situation explains the change from selection at large to selection by boroughs. The amalgamation of Brooklyn, Long Island City, and Richmond with New York into greater New York made it seem desirable to adopt a method of selecting members which would give each borough distinct representation. Aside from these two cases, it is a striking fact that all changes have been from the method which emphasized district representation to a method which emphasizes the city as the unit of representation. It can be said that selection from the city at large will undoubtedly come ultimately to be the basis of selecting members of the board of education in practically all cities.

¹ Mr. Carroll G. Pearse, now president of the state normal school at Milwaukee, letter of January 6, 1914.

² Mr. Carroll G. Pearse, *ibid.*

THE TERM OF OFFICE OF MEMBERS

Term of Office in Years, in 1893 and in 1913, Compared.
The following table shows the term of office in years of members of the board of education in the cities indicated in 1893 and in 1913.

Cities	1893	1913	Cities	1893	1913
New York	3	5	Newark	2	3
Brooklyn	3		Minneapolis	6	6
Chicago	3	3	Jersey City	2	2
Philadelphia	3	6	Louisville	2	4
St. Louis	4	6	Omaha	5	3
Boston	3	3	Rochester	2	4
Baltimore	4	6	St. Paul	3	2 or 3 ²
San Francisco	2	4	Kansas City	3	6
Cincinnati	2	4	Providence	3	6
Cleveland	2	4	Denver	2	6
Buffalo	No bd.	No bd.	Indianapolis	3	4
New Orleans	4	4	Totals	85	108
Pittsburgh	3	6	Average term		
Allegheny	1, 2, 3 ¹		in years	2.93	4.30
Washington	3	3			
Detroit	4	3			
Milwaukee	3	6			

The preceding table shows that the average term of members in 1893 was 2.93 years, or practically two years and eleven months, while in 1913 it had increased to 4.30 years, or four years and three months. During the twenty years under consideration the average length of term of members has increased by one year and four months, or an increase of over 45 per cent.

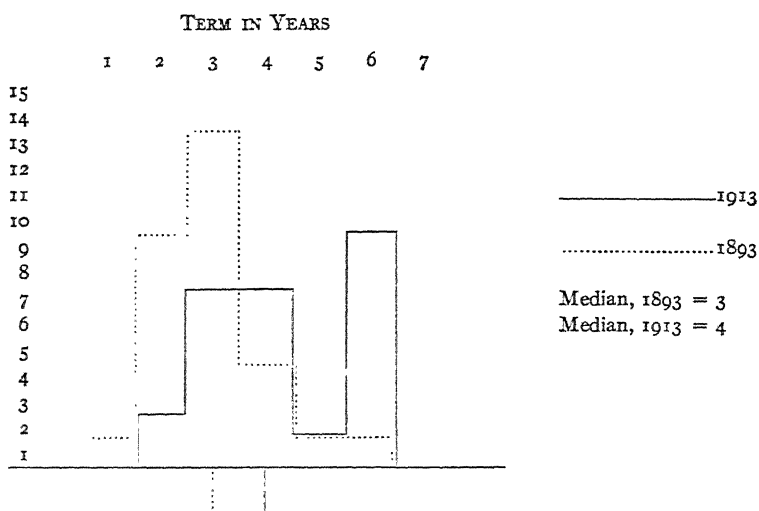
Charts Showing Increased Length of Term. The following table shows how the terms of members were distributed from one to six years in 1893 and from two to six years in 1913.

¹ In Allegheny some members were elected for one, some for two, and some for three years. These were treated as though they were in three different cities.

² In St. Paul members are appointed for two or three years. These were treated as though they were in two separate cities.

	Number of Cases	Terms in Years						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1893	29 ¹	1	9	13	4	1	1	0
1913	26 ¹	0	2	7	7	1	9	0

The following graph will show these same facts in clearer form.



How much Change there has Been. The further consideration of the changes which have taken place in the length of term of members of boards of education will be according to the following headings, (a) increases, (b) decreases, and (c) no changes.

(a) *Increases.* Out of twenty-five cities, there are sixteen cases of increasing the term of members. The following table shows the amount of the increase in each case.

¹ These are cases, not cities. For explanation, see notes on page 139.

	From	To		From	To
	<i>Years</i>	<i>Years</i>		<i>Years</i>	<i>Years</i>
Newark	2	3	New York	3	5
San Francisco	2	4	Philadelphia	3	6
Cincinnati	2	4	Pittsburgh	3	6
Cleveland	2	4	Milwaukee	3	6
Louisville	2	4	Kansas City	3	6
Rochester	2	4	Providence	3	6
Denver	2	6	Baltimore	4	6
Indianapolis	3	4	St. Louis	4	6

The following considerations should be noted: in all cases except Newark the change has resulted in a term of four, five, or six years; six years is the most common term to which changes have been made, with almost as many cases of four year terms; and two cities advanced from a term of four years to one of six years.

(b) *Decreases.* In three cities, Detroit, Omaha, and St. Paul, the term of members has been decreased during the twenty years from 1893 to 1913. The term in Detroit was reduced from four to three years, in Omaha from five to three years, and in St. Paul a part of the members are now elected for a term of two years instead of three years, as formerly. It is clear from the above facts that these cities are reactionary, as these changes are not in harmony with the marked changes which are taking place throughout the country.

(c) *No Changes.* In seven cities there has been no change in the term of office of members. It will be interesting to note the term of office in each of these cities. In Jersey City the term is two years; in Chicago, Boston, Washington, and for part of the members in St. Paul the term is three years; in New Orleans the term is four years; and in Minneapolis the term is already six years. From the tendency shown during the past twenty years to lengthen the term to four or six years, it may be confidently expected

that, in any of the cities with a term of three years or less, changes will ultimately be made to a term of at least four years, and more likely to a term of six years. Superintendents often express themselves as decidedly in favor of a longer term for members of the board, in order that there may be fewer interruptions in the pursuance of a general policy, interruptions due to frequent changes in the membership of the board.¹

CONCLUSIONS

The summary at the close of the discussion of each separate topic makes unnecessary a repetition here of the facts which the study of this topic has brought out. However, it will be profitable to state in general terms the conclusions concerning certain features of the board of education, which can be deduced from the facts presented in the preceding pages. These conclusions are presented by topics, in the same order in which the topics were discussed.

(I) CONCERNING THE SIZE OF THE BOARD OF EDUCATION

1. From the numerous but differing changes in the boards of education which have taken place during the past twenty years, it seems clear that society has not yet demonstrated by experience what the size of the board should be. From the tendency shown, however, it is clear that the board must be a small one, probably five members, or at most not more than seven members.

2. The changes which have taken place fail to indicate that a large city needs any larger board of education than a small city.

¹ For illustration, see *Preprint of Report of the Superintendent of Schools, Chicago*, for 1913, p. 29.

(2) CONCERNING METHODS OF SELECTING MEMBERS

1. The tendency which the past twenty years has shown in the matter of selecting board members is toward either appointment by the mayor or election by the people, other methods having been practically eliminated.

2. Assuming that there is one best method which will survive, as yet there is no evidence to indicate which method is ultimately to prevail over the other.

3. The selection of members at large is so nearly the only basis now that there can be no doubt that this is to be the prevailing basis.

(3) CONCERNING THE TERM OF OFFICE OF MEMBERS

1. The lengthening of the term of office has been so universal and so marked that there can be no doubt that the longer term has come to stay.

2. Experience does not indicate whether the term should be four or six years, as the number of increases to each of these terms has been about equal.

Finally, the standard board of education toward which boards of education generally have been developing in these twenty-eight cities during the past twenty years is a board of five members (or at most not over seven members), either appointed by the mayor or elected by the people from the city at large, who shall serve for a term of four or six years.

PART III
THE CITY SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS

CHAPTER VIII

THE CITY SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS: SELECTION, TENURE, AND SALARY

As has already been stated, the office of superintendent of schools has been established in every city of importance in the United States. In previous chapters I have also shown that in a large majority of the cities under consideration the superintendent participates in the appointment of teachers. It is the purpose of this chapter to consider the selection, tenure, and salary of the superintendent. These will indicate, in a general way, to whom the superintendent is responsible, the stability of his position, and the importance of his office as viewed by the community. The facts in the several tables were gathered from various sources; except when noted to the contrary, they have been confirmed by the superintendents concerned.

HOW THE SUPERINTENDENT IS SELECTED

The city superintendent is an officer of the city board of education and in most cities is elected by that board. There are a few conspicuous exceptions. In Buffalo and San Francisco the superintendent is elected by the people at a general election. The superintendent in Jacksonville, Fla., a county superintendency, is likewise elected by the people. In Richmond he is selected by the state board of education. Aside from these exceptions, the superintendent in each city covered by our study is chosen by the city board of education.

As an officer of the board, the superintendent's duties and

(a) FIRST CLASS CITIES

Cities	How Chosen	Tenure		Salary	
		Term in Years	How Fixed	Amount	How Fixed
Boston	By board ¹	6	By law	\$10,000	By board ²
New York	By board	6	By law	10,000	By board
Buffalo	Elected by people	4	By charter	7,500	By city council
Newark	By board	Indef.	By board	7,000	By board
Philadelphia	By board	1	By board ³	9,000	By board
Pittsburgh	By board	4	By board	9,000	By board
Baltimore	By board	Indef.	By board	5,000	By board
Washington	By board	3	By congress	6,000	By congress
New Orleans	By board	4	By law	5,000	By board
Cleveland	By board	3 ⁴	By board	6,000	By board
Cincinnati	By board	4	By board	10,000	By board
Chicago	By board	1	By board	10,000	By board
Detroit	By board	3	By board	6,000	By board
Milwaukee	By board	3	By law	6,000	By board
Minneapolis	By board	3	By board	5,500	By board
St. Louis	By board	4	By law	8,000	By board
San Francisco	Elected by people	4	By law	4,000	By law
Los Angeles	By board	4	By board	6,000	By board

¹ "By board" means by city board of education.

² With approval of the mayor.

³ By law the superintendent in Philadelphia may be elected for a term of four years, the same as in Pittsburgh. The board fixes the term at one year.

⁴ The law fixes the maximum at five years after the first term; the board fixes the term as indicated.

⁵ First appointment, one year; second may be for five years.

⁶ By board of estimate and apportionment.

⁷ Law fixes \$2,370 as salary; city council adds \$2,230.

⁸ By law not to exceed five years.

⁹ By rules of board, superintendent cannot be elected for more than three year term.

¹⁰ By law not to exceed three year term.

NOTE. The salary of the superintendent in Denver is \$6,000. This correction was received too late for me to refigure the computations based on this table. However, the changes would be slight.

(b) SECOND CLASS CITIES

Cities	How Chosen	Tenure		Salary	
		Term in Years	How Fixed	Amount	How Fixed
Cambridge	By board	1 ¹	By board	\$5,000	By board
Fall River	By board	1	By board	3,500	By board
Lowell	(No data)				
Worcester	By board	3	By rules	4,250	By board
Providence	By board	1 ²	By rules	5,000	By board
Bridgeport	By board	3	By rules	4,100	By board
New Haven	By board	1 ³	By charter	4,500	By board
Albany	By board	Indef.	(No data)	3,000	⁴
Rochester	By board	4	By charter	5,000	By board
Syracuse	By board	4	By law	4,000	By board
Jersey City	By board	Indef.	By board	6,500	By board
Paterson	By board	1 ²	By law	3,600	By board
Scranton	By board	4	By law	5,000	By board
Richmond	By state bd. of ed.	4	By law	4,600 ⁵	By law
Atlanta	By board	1	By rules	3,600	By board
Louisville	By board	1 ¹	By law	5,000	By law
Memphis	By board	2	By board	3,600	By law
Nashville	By board	3 ⁶	By board	3,600	By board
Birmingham	By board	5	By board	5,000	By board
Columbus	By board	4 ⁶	By rules	4,000	By board
Dayton	By board	5	By law	5,000	By board
Toledo *	By board	5	By law	5,000	By board
Indianapolis	By board	4	By law	5,500	By board
Grand Rapids	By board	1 ⁷	By board	3,750	By board
St. Paul	By board	2	By law	5,000	By law
Omaha	By board	3 ⁸	By board	5,400	By board
Kansas City	By board	1	By board	4,500	By board
Denver*	By board	1	By board	5,000	By board
Seattle	By board	3 ⁸	By law	7,500	By board
Spokane	By board	3 ⁸	By board	4,500	By board
Portland	By board	1	By board	4,500	By board
Oakland	By board	4	By law	4,000	By board

* Data not confirmed by the superintendent.

¹ First appointment, one year; second, five years.² First appointment, one year; second, during good behavior.

(Balance of notes on opposite page)

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(c) THIRD CLASS CITIES

Cities	How Chosen	Tenure		Salary	
		Term in Years	How Fixed	Amount	How Fixed
Portland	By board	1	By law	\$2,600	By board
Manchester	By board	2	By charter	3,000	By board
Burlington	By board	1	By charter	2,400	By board
Wilmington	By board	2	By rules	3,000	By board
Wheeling	By board	2	By board	3,000	By board
Charlotte	By board	1	By law	2,100 ¹	By board
Charleston	By board	4	By rules	2,500	By board
Jacksonville	Elected by people	4	By law	3,600 ²	By law
Meridian	By board	1	By board	2,875	By board
San Antonio *	(No data)	2	(No data)	2,250	(No data)
Little Rock	By board	1	By rules	3,000	By rules
Oklahoma	By board	3	By board	3,600	By board
Des Moines	By board	1	(No data)	4,000	By board
Fargo	By board	1	By board	3,250	By board
Sioux Falls	By board	1	By rules	3,000	By board
Kansas City	By board	1 ³	By rules	3,500	By board
Butte	By board	3	By law	4,000	By board
Cheyenne	By board	1	By board	2,500	By board
Albuquerque	By board	1	By rules	2,250	By board
Tucson	By board	2	By law	3,000	By board
Salt Lake	By board	2	By law	4,800	By board
Reno	By board	4 ⁴	By board	3,000	By board
Boise	By board	3 ⁵	By board	4,000	By board

powers, except when prescribed by state law, are defined by the rules and regulations of the board. The official responsibility of the superintendent is to the board of edu-

* Data not confirmed by the superintendent.

¹ In addition a residence is furnished the superintendent.

² Minimum by law; board may pay more.

³ Law permits board to elect for one or two years.

⁴ Law permits board to elect for four years after one term.

⁵ One year first appointment; three years second.

cation, which elects him to office and which also largely defines his duties and powers.

THE SUPERINTENDENT'S TERM OF OFFICE

The length of the term of office of the superintendent shows the general stability of his position. If his term of office is too short (say one year), in our large cities and to a somewhat lesser extent in all cities he can scarcely begin his work before he must be re-elected. On the other hand, if his term of office is of reasonable length (say from three to five years), and if he is protected in serving that term by the state law, then the conditions make it possible for him to assume that educational leadership in city affairs which the public is coming more and more to expect of him.

It can be assumed that innovations in the schools will bring more or less adverse criticism on the superintendent. Obviously the more progressive and active a superintendent is, the more likely he is to bring such criticism on himself. Every school man knows that if the superintendent ignores this criticism or is oblivious to it, he stands a good chance of not being re-elected. The most progressive and efficient superintendents are likely to create so much opposition in the course of a few terms of service that they cannot be re-elected. The best superintendents may literally work themselves out of a position through the performance of the most efficient service.

Unfortunately for the schools, superintendents generally have found it by far the safer policy for them to proceed cautiously in the introduction of progressive ideas into the school system. By following this policy their positions are more secure, and the public complacently accepts the lack of legitimate criticism as an indication of marked success. But the pursuance of this policy by the superintendent

tends to keep the schools in a static and non-progressive condition. Progress is made only by the adoption of promising innovations and the retention of those which are good. In reality the adoption of this policy by a superintendent, or the adoption of a progressive policy, marks the difference between keeping the schools running and keeping them running at their greatest possible efficiency.

It is altogether likely that this conservatism, largely forced on the superintendent by the conditions under which he works, has been the most potent single factor in keeping our practice in educational affairs so far behind our theory. School administrators are kept from putting many of their promising theories to work in the school system, partly because of the insecurity of their positions and partly because of their subordination to the leadership of the board of education. Changes are already taking place which look toward the enlargement of the powers and responsibilities of the superintendent. There is need also of increasing the stability of the superintendent's position by increasing the length of term for which he is elected and by fixing that term by law.

As has been shown, the board of education selects the superintendent of schools in most cities. But so long as his term of office also is left to the discretion of the board, the superintendent is placed in a position of subordination in which it is extremely difficult for him to adopt any other attitude than one of conservatism. In most cases this means that he fails to make himself the educational leader of his city; he either shares that leadership with the lay board or else is willing to let the board march in the front ranks while he takes a position well back in the procession. The chances of the possibility and probability of the superintendent assuming the desirable position of educational leader in his city will be materially increased when his term

of office is of reasonable length (say from three to five years), and when that term is fixed by state law so that he cannot be deposed by the board for inconsequential acts or for assuming that leadership which he ought to assume. Human nature must be considered as it is, and the superintendent ought not to be and cannot be expected to be active and aggressive in his direction of educational affairs when by that very activity and aggressiveness he is working himself out of a position. The superintendent must be protected in the exercise of the leadership which we expect of him.

(1) THE LENGTH OF THE TERM OF OFFICE

The following table shows by classes of cities the length of the superintendent's term of office and the number of cities under each term.

	Term							Average ¹
	1	2	3	4	5	6	Indefinite	
18 first class cities	2	1	4	6	1	2	2	3.56 years
31 ² second class cities	11	2	6	7	3	0	2	2.62 "
23 third class cities	11	6	3	3	0	0	0	1.91 "

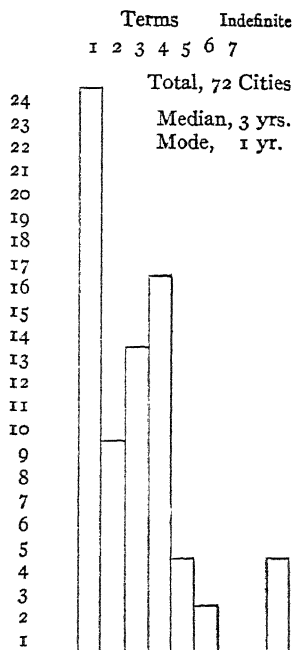
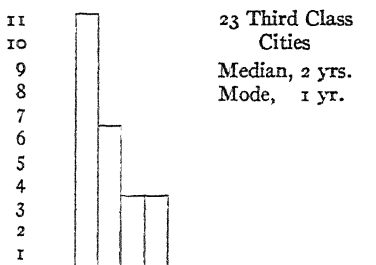
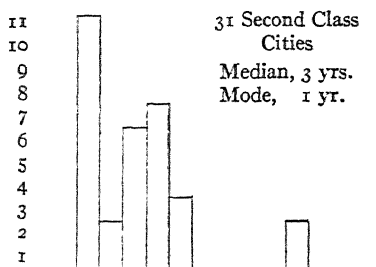
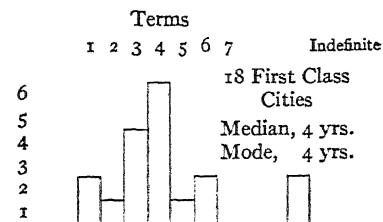
The preceding table and the accompanying graphs on page 154 make it clear that there is a direct relationship between the size of city and the length of term of office of the superintendent of schools. This is shown by the average term, the median, and the mode in the distributions for the three classes of cities. The following tabulation brings these facts into prominence.

¹ Average does not include those cities which have indefinite terms.

² Lowell missing.

	Average Term	Median	Mode
First class cities	3.56 years	4	4
Second class cities	2.62 "	3	1
Third class cities	1.91 "	2	1

TERMS OF SUPERINTENDENTS



In each case the length of term decreases as one passes from the larger to the smaller cities. For example, the average term in first class cities is 3.56 years, in second

class cities it is 2.62 years, and in third class cities it is 1.91 years.

Further, the longest fixed term of the superintendent varies with the size of the city. In the first class cities the longest term is six years, in second class cities it is five years, and in third class cities it is four years. The shortest term is uniformly one year in all classes of cities.

It is interesting to observe also that two cities among the first class and two among the second class cities select superintendents for indefinite terms, *i.e.*, during the period of satisfactory service.

It is difficult to understand why cities like Chicago and Philadelphia should continue to appoint superintendents for one year terms. Perhaps the wonder really is that competent superintendents are willing to assume the responsibilities of the position under such conditions. If a six year term is good for New York City and for Boston, and also if at least a three or four year term is found desirable in most other cities, why should Chicago and Philadelphia subject a superintendent to an annual re-election? What other reason can there be than a desire on the part of the board of education to remind the superintendent of schools constantly of his subordination to and dependency on the board? Obviously this prevents the superintendent from becoming the real educational leader that he should be, and is an attempt to establish the board as the educational leader, a role which the board is not qualified to assume and which it is, therefore, undesirable for it to attempt to assume.

(2) HOW THE TERM OF OFFICE IS FIXED

Obviously, if the term of office of the superintendent is fixed by law, his position is more secure than if it is fixed

by the rules of the board or left to the discretion of the board. The following tabulations show how the term is fixed in the different classes of cities. In the tabulation "by law" means, of course, by state law. "By charter" means by the city charter granted to a city for its local government. "By rules" means that the board has defined in its rules and regulations the term of office of the superintendent. "By board" means that the term is left to the discretion of the board and is fixed when the board elects a superintendent.

TABULATION SHOWING HOW THE SUPERINTENDENT'S TERM OF OFFICE IS
FIXED

18 first class cities	{ By law	7 cities
	{ By charter	1 city
	{ By board	10 cities
30 second class cities	{ By law	12 cities
	{ By charter	2 "
	{ By rules	5 "
	{ By board	11 "
21 third class cities	{ By law	6 cities
	{ By charter	2 "
	{ By rules	6 "
	{ By board	7 "

SUMMARY

Total 69 cities	{ By law	25 cities	36.2 per cent
	{ By charter	5 "	7.3 "
	{ By rules	11 "	15.9 "
	{ By board	28 "	40.6 "

The instability of the position of the superintendent is strikingly shown by the fact that the term is largely left to the discretion of the board. A change in the membership of the board or any local passing storm of protest may altogether too easily terminate his services. It is slightly

better that the term should be fixed by the rules, because it takes more than a majority vote to set aside the rules.

The most stable term is that defined by the city charter or by the state law, in which cases the length of term is beyond the interference of the local board. The length of term of office is not properly a local matter, but a matter of importance to the state. Hence, the state is justified in fixing the length of that term in such a way as to protect the superintendent in the discharge of his proper functions, and at the same time to conserve the state's interests in education. However, there are only thirty cities (about 43 per cent) of those under consideration in which the term is fixed by law or by the city charter.

Before the superintendent will be able to bring to his position the highest degree of efficiency, he must be allowed a reasonable term of office during which he may make such readjustments in educational administration as he deems desirable. His term of office must be so protected by law that the first storm of popular disfavor which always or usually accompanies changes or innovations will not deprive him of office before the results of such innovations become evident. Hence, the term of office of the superintendent of schools should be fixed by state law. As in the case of several cities now, his first term may well be a short one of one or two years, depending on the size of the city, after which his term should be from four to six years.

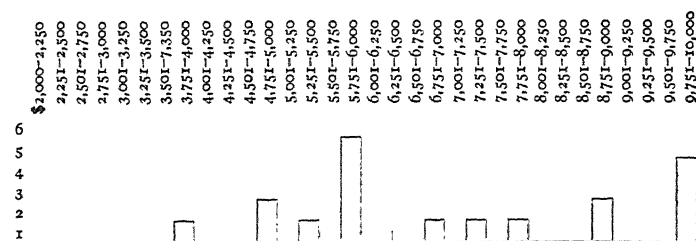
THE SUPERINTENDENT'S SALARY

(1) THE AMOUNT OF THE SUPERINTENDENT'S SALARY

One index of the public's conception of the importance of the office of superintendent of schools is the amount of salary it is willing to pay the person who holds that office.

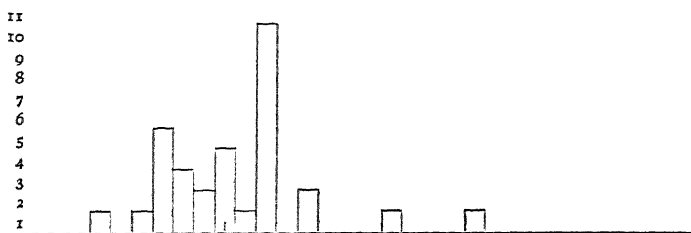
The following graphs show, by classes of cities, the range in salary and the number of cities paying the different salaries.

SALARIES OF SUPERINTENDENTS



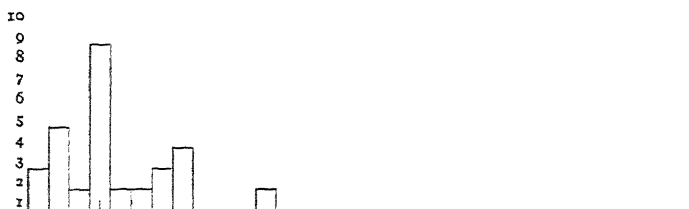
18 First Class Cities.

Average Salary, \$7,222; Median, \$6,376; Mode, \$5,876.



31 Second Class Cities.

Average Salary, \$4,596; Median, \$4,376; Mode, \$4,876.



23 Third Class Cities.

Average Salary, \$3,096; Median, \$2,876; Mode, \$2,876.

NOTE. — The averages in the above cases were figured from the exact salaries given in the table at the beginning of this chapter.

The following table shows some interesting facts obtained from the previous tables and graphs.

	Lowest Salary	Highest Salary	Average Salary	Median Salary	Mode Salary
First class cities	\$4,000	\$10,000	\$7,222	\$6,376	\$5,876
Second class cities	3,000	7,500	4,596	4,376	4,876
Third class cities	2,100	4,800	3,096	2,876	2,876

In the matter of salary also, there is a direct relationship to the size of the city. In each of the columns of figures on the preceding page the salary decreases from the larger to the smaller cities. However, the lowest salary paid among first class cities is only about one-half as large as the highest salary paid among second class cities. The same is true in comparing the lowest salary among second class cities with the highest salary among third class cities.

The salaries of superintendents are beginning to reach a more satisfactory level. It may be confidently expected that, as men prepare themselves better for the important responsibilities of the superintendent's position, the public will compensate them in proportion to what such service is worth.

(2) HOW THE SUPERINTENDENT'S SALARY IS FIXED

The method of fixing salaries of superintendents is shown by the following tabulations.

18 first class cities	{ By law	2 cities
	{ By city council	1 city
	{ By board of education	15 cities
31 second class cities	{ By law	4 cities
	{ By board of est. and app.	1 city
	{ By board of education	26 cities
22 third class cities	{ By law	1 city
	{ By rules	1 "
	{ By board	20 cities

SUMMARY

71 cities	{ By law	7 cities
	{ By board	61 "
	{ By rules	1 city
	{ By other methods	2 cities

The salary of the superintendent is largely a local and not a state matter. The city must pay the salary, and each

city is entitled to as efficient a superintendent as it is willing to engage and pay. Hence, the amount of the salary is properly fixed, not by state law, but by the local board of education. Further, when the amount of salary is left to the board, it is possible to increase the salary and thus retain a superintendent when his election by another city is under consideration. This is practically impossible if the salary is fixed by law, because to change the law is a slow process and could not be done in time to retain such a superintendent. On the other hand, if the board is allowed complete freedom in fixing the superintendent's salary, it is in a position to adjust the amount of salary to meet any circumstances.

CHANGES IN THE LENGTH OF THE SUPERINTENDENT'S TERM OF OFFICE AND HIS SALARY

A comparison between the terms of office in 1913 and in 1893 in representative cities will show whether the term of office is increasing or decreasing in length. This comparison will be made between data which I have collected for 1913¹ and data published by Draper for the year 1893.²

Draper does not give the salaries of superintendents. Neither does the United States Bureau of Education publish salaries before 1907. Therefore, the comparison of salaries will be made between those of 1913 and those of 1907, a period of only six years.

The complete data on terms and salaries of the superintendents are given in the following table.

¹ These data have been confirmed by the superintendents concerned.

² *Educational Review*, vol. vi, pp. 1-16.

	Term in Years		Salary	
	1893	1913	1907 ¹	1913
New York	2	6	\$10,000	\$10,000
Brooklyn	3			
Chicago	1	1	10,000	10,000
Philadelphia	1	1	7,500	9,000
St. Louis	3	4	7,000	8,000
Boston	2	6	6,000	10,000
Baltimore	4	Indefinite	5,000	5,000
San Francisco	4	4	4,000	4,000
Cincinnati	2	2	6,000	10,000
Cleveland	Unlimited	3	6,000	6,000
Buffalo	3	4	5,000	7,500
New Orleans	4	4	4,000 ²	5,000
Pittsburgh	3	4	6,000	9,000
Allegheny	3			
Washington	Unlimited	3	5,000	6,000
Detroit	3	3	6,000	6,000
Milwaukee	2	3	6,000	6,000
Newark	1	Indefinite	5,500 ²	7,000
Minneapolis	3	5	5,250	5,500
Jersey City	3	Indefinite	6,000	6,500
Louisville	3	1	5,000	5,000
Omaha	3	3	5,000	5,400
Rochester	2	4	5,000	5,000
St. Paul	2	2	4,500	5,000
Kansas City	1	1	4,500	4,500
Providence	1	1	5,000	5,000
Denver	Unlimited	1	5,000	5,000
Indianapolis	1	4	5,000	5,500
Total	60	70	\$149,250	\$170,900
Average	2.4	3.04	5,740	6,573

(1) CHANGES IN THE LENGTH OF THE SUPERINTENDENT'S
TERM OF OFFICE

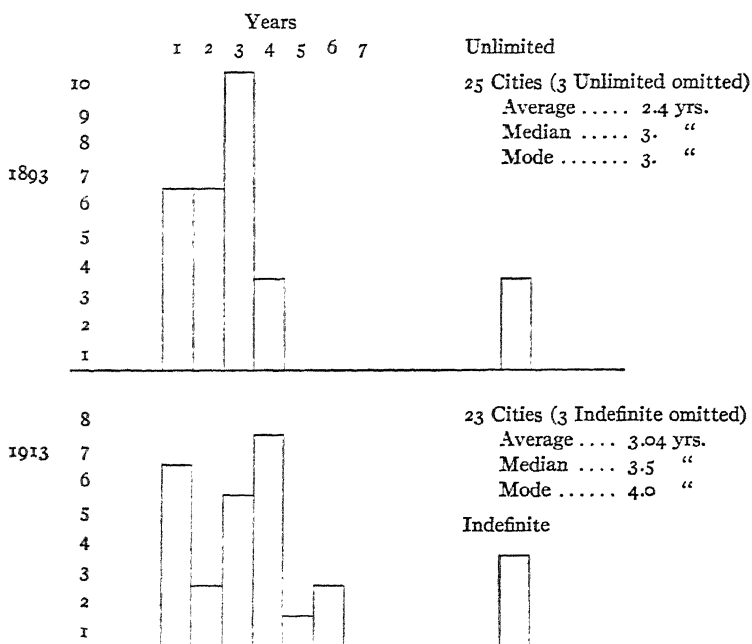
The graphs on the following page are based on the information given in the preceding table and show the length of term of the superintendents in 1893 and in 1913.

¹ Report of the United States Commissioner of Education, 1907, vol. i.

² For 1908.

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CHANGES IN THE LENGTH OF TERM OF THE SUPERINTENDENTS



The following facts are worthy of special notice:

(1) In no city in 1893 was there a superintendent with a fixed term of more than four years; in 1913 there was one with a term of five years and two with terms of six years each.

(2) The average length of term of the superintendent increased from 2.4 years in 1893 to 3.04 years in 1913.

(3) There were nine cases of increase in length of term of the superintendent, ten cases of no change, and one case of decrease in the twenty year period.

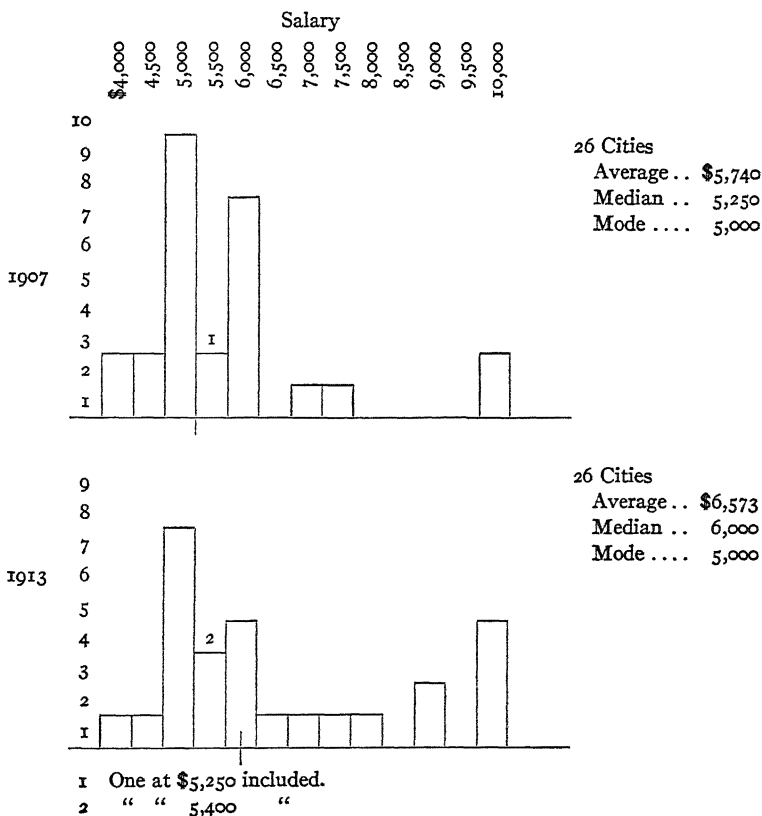
The one decrease is in Louisville. The first appointment of a superintendent is for a term of one year, and after that the law fixes the term at four years. In 1914, therefore, the term would be for four years.

If one limits the comparison of terms to the eighteen first class cities, the average increase in length of term during the twenty year period is just one year.

(2) CHANGES IN THE AMOUNT OF THE SUPERINTENDENT'S SALARY

The following graphs are based on the information given in the table on page 161 and show the amount of the annual salary of superintendents in 1907 and 1913.

CHANGES IN AMOUNT OF SALARY OF SUPERINTENDENTS



The following important facts are worthy of special notice:

(1) The average salary has increased from \$5,740 in 1907 to \$6,573 in 1913, or an average increase of over \$833 among all cities in six years.

(2) There have been fourteen cases of an increase in the annual salary, twelve cases of no change, and no cases of a decrease.

Among the cities giving increases in salaries, the amount of the average increase during the six year period is \$1,546. This striking average increase is calculated from the following tabulation, which shows the amount of increase in each case.

2 cities increased salaries \$4,000	3 cities increased salaries \$4,000
1 city " " 3,000	3 " " " 500
1 " " " 2,500	1 city " " 400
2 cities " " 1,500	1 " " " 250

CHANGING OF THE SUPERINTENDENTS

One of the striking facts pertaining to the office of superintendent of schools is the constant shifting from one position to another of the men who hold the office. This changing is due to two main causes: (1) the lack of a tenure of reasonable length in many cities, which makes it convenient for a board to change superintendents at frequent intervals; and (2) the rapidly rising salaries, which tempt superintendents to leave one place to accept a higher salary in another.

Out of the seventy-three cities we are studying, twenty-one cities (28.8 per cent) had the same superintendent in 1913 that they had in 1907. Out of the twenty-six largest cities in the United States in 1893, only seven cities (26.9 per cent) had the same superintendent in 1913 that they had in 1907.

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

We find that:

- (1) The superintendent, with few exceptions, is chosen by the board of education.
- (2) The term of office of the superintendent is comparatively short, but is increasing in length.
- (3) The term is fixed in about 55 per cent of the cases by the board and in about 45 per cent of the cases by law.
- (4) The salary of the superintendent is increasing rapidly and is beginning to reach a reasonable level.
- (5) The salary is fixed largely by the board of education.
- (6) Those who hold the office of superintendent change positions frequently.

PART IV

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

CHAPTER IX

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS — A CONSTRUCTIVE PLAN FOR APPOINTING TEACHERS

It is the hope of the writer that the present methods of appointing teachers in the various cities have been so presented, interpreted, and characterized that the better methods may eventually be substituted for the archaic methods now in use in some of our city school systems. In order that the essential results of this study may be readily accessible, I shall present in this final chapter a condensed summary of the entire monograph, together with a constructive plan for appointing teachers. This plan is not theoretical, but practical, inasmuch as it includes no feature that is not found in actual practice in some city included in the foregoing study. It is purposely also a progressive plan, because it embodies the best features that have been found in any school system.

To illustrate: if one feature of the method of appointing teachers in one city is considered superior to that feature in any other city, it is incorporated in the constructive plan herein presented. If another feature of a different system is considered better than the corresponding feature in any other system, that feature is likewise made a part of the plan. Thus I have built up a complete plan for the appointment of teachers.

In so far as the practice in any city deviates from the procedure recommended in this plan, the reader may rightly conclude that the practice is just to that extent adversely criticised. On the contrary, just to the extent that any

city's method of appointing teachers conforms to this constructive plan, the reader may rightly conclude that just to that extent it is approved.

I do not wish to be understood as overlooking the fact that there may be danger in wrenching one particular feature of a school system from its setting in the system and from its manifold relationships. To consider a single administrative function may lead to the commending of a worthy feature of a generally bad school system, or it may lead to condemning a bad feature of a school system in other respects commendable. The appointment of teachers, however, is an administrative procedure which is largely independent of other administrative activities of the school officials. Further, I have considered the whole process of appointing teachers in each city as a unit, and have considered to some extent the other administrative factors related directly to the matter of appointment.

In view of these considerations it seems fair to segregate this one administrative function from the others and to characterize the process of appointing teachers as good or bad, as the facts warrant. However, in commending or condemning any feature of the appointive process in a given city, I am not commending or condemning that school system as a whole. My criticisms apply only to the feature of the system under special consideration.

Inasmuch as any method of appointing teachers depends for its operation on, and is conditioned by, the kind of administrative agencies established, it is desirable to reverse the order of treatment in this final chapter and to consider first the agencies which do the appointing, namely, the board of education and the superintendent, and then to consider the methods of making the appointments.

It should be borne in mind that the board of education is an older and more fundamental institution than the city

superintendent of schools. Hence, the board's functions, responsibilities, and powers have been more completely worked out and defined than have those of the superintendent. Hence, also, while it is possible and fairly easy to define rather clearly a typical board of education (which is in most respects a satisfactory board), the office of the superintendent of schools cannot be so easily characterized. Consequently, in the characterization of the superintendent, I shall have to assume what the present tendencies indicate to a greater extent than I have had to in the case of the board.

CONCERNING THE CITY BOARD OF EDUCATION

1. The city board of education is the local administrative agency in the city charged by the state with the responsibility of providing education for the children of the city. The city board is a state agency for the discharge of a state function. The state defines, in general laws and charter provisions, the larger functions of the board of education, or delegates to the board general authority over education. The board may adopt any administrative regulations not inconsistent with the established laws.

2. There are small boards and large boards of education in cities of all sizes and in all sections of the country. Although there are some large boards in the cities under our consideration, the average size is less than ten members, the median size is seven members, and the most common size is five members. Almost 70 per cent of the cities under our consideration have boards of less than ten members.

3. During the past twenty years, in twenty-seven of the largest cities studied, the average size of the board of education has been reduced from twenty-two members to eleven members. The decrease in size of boards has been, in most cases, from boards of twenty or more to boards of

nine or less. The number of members to which boards were most commonly reduced was five. During the past twenty years not a single one of the twenty-seven cities has changed from a small board to a large board.

4. The length of term of office of board members ranges from two to six years, with an average term of a little less than four years. In the first class cities the most common term is six years; in the second class cities the tendency is decidedly in favor of a term of three or four years; and in third class cities the variation is largely from two to four years. As a rule, the smaller the city the shorter the term of office of school board members.

5. During the past twenty years the term of office of the board members has changed from an average of 2.93 years in 1893 to 4.30 years in 1913, or an increase of nearly 47 per cent. Among twenty-five cities there are fifteen cases of increasing the term of office and only three cases of decreasing it. The most common increases have been from two or three year terms to four or six year terms.

6. In most cases members of the board serve without financial compensation. In only nine out of the seventy-one cities are members paid for their services. Compensation varies from \$4 per meeting to \$1,200 per year for members who do not give all of their time to educational service. In San Francisco, members of the board devote all their time to this office and are paid \$3,000 per year. Thus, it is seen that most cities do not compensate school board members, and that among the nine cities that do, the compensation varies greatly in amount. Except in San Francisco and Rochester, the compensation is small.

7. The most common methods of selecting members of the board of education are appointment by the mayor and election by the people. The mayor appoints board members in only ten cities, as compared with fifty-two cities in

which the people elect members. Appointment by the mayor is confined to the larger cities. Members are elected from the city at large in forty-eight cities, as compared with fourteen cities in which they are selected from wards or districts as such. The courts, the city council, and the city commissioners select the school board members in a few cities.

8. Comparatively few changes have taken place in the methods of selecting school board members during the past twenty years in the twenty-seven largest cities. Those changes have tended to reduce the number of methods to two, namely, appointment by the mayor and election by the people. In 1893 there were ten distinct methods of selecting board members, namely, election by the people, by wards or at large, appointment by the mayor, from wards or at large, by mayor and city council, by the city council, by the court, by city commissioners, by district boards of education, and by the state board of education. By 1913 the number of methods had been reduced to six, namely, election by the people, by wards or at large, appointment by the mayor, by boroughs or at large, by the mayor and city council, and by the court. In these twenty-seven cities selection of members from wards or districts has been almost entirely displaced by selection from the city at large.

9. In most of the cities members of the board of education are laymen who are specifically selected to serve on that board; only four of the cities have ex-officio members. Members are required to be residents of the city (if selected from the city at large, and of a district or ward if selected by that method) from a period of a few months to five years, with three years the most usual time. They are required to be twenty-one years of age or over, and in some cases at least thirty years of age. In several cities the law pre-

vents members of the board from holding any other office. Women are eligible to membership on the board in all cities where they have the right to vote for school board members.

10. Boards of education usually organize standing committees. The number of such committees varies from none in six cities to twenty-seven in one city. Some of the smaller boards do not have standing committees. The average number of committees for all cities is six. Standing committees most often are made up of three members, although there are committees of fifteen members. The average size of all committees in the sixty-three cities is less than four members. The committee on teachers is slightly larger than the average committee of the board. In over 80 per cent of the cases each standing committee consists of a minority of the board members.

11. The committee system of organization of the board is wrong for the following reasons: (1) the small standing committee is likely to play a disproportionately large part in the transaction of the board's business; (2) the committee form of organization increases materially the opportunities for the exercise of pernicious influences; and (3) the committee system of organization violates four fundamental principles of effective school administration: (a) the duties of standing committees of the board cannot be so defined that overlapping of authority is avoided; (b) therefore, the responsibility of each committee cannot be adequately fixed; (c) hence, the accountability of each committee cannot be insisted on; and (d) the committee system tends to confuse lay control with professional and executive management.

In view of the foregoing facts, the typical and satisfactory board of education, toward which boards have been developing, may be characterized as follows:

The typical or ideal board of education consists of five

or seven members, elected by the people or appointed by the mayor from the city at large. Its members are required to be at least twenty-one years of age and are often required to be thirty years or over. They are required to be bona fide residents of the city for at least three years preceding the time of selection. They serve without financial compensation for a usual term of four or five years. While most boards still organize standing committees, there is a tendency to do away with standing committees and to delegate to executive officers of the board the discharge of those functions which have customarily been assigned to standing committees. There is also a well defined tendency looking toward the incorporation in state laws of the above features of the board of education, instead of leaving them to the discretion of the local board or to the community.

CONCERNING THE CITY SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS

In view of the several summaries at frequent intervals throughout the chapter on the city superintendent of schools, it is unnecessary to make a detailed summary here. Instead I shall characterize the present status and probable future development of the office of superintendent of schools as shown by the facts brought out in chapter viii.

The city superintendent of schools is an officer of the city board of education. As such the superintendent's official responsibility is to the board of education, which selects him and which also largely defines his duties and powers. Except as provided by state law, the superintendent has no authority aside from that conferred on him by the board of education.

In the past, because the board selected him, fixed his salary and length of term, and largely defined his powers,

the tendency has been to subordinate unduly the superintendent's office to the board of education, and thereby to make it impossible, or at least extremely difficult, for the superintendent to develop in his office the highest degree of efficiency.

At present there is a well defined tendency to increase the importance of the superintendent by enlarging his powers and responsibilities. This tendency is seen in the increased length of the superintendent's term. The lengthening of his term will abolish the frequent re-elections which have been a menace to the superintendent's work. Frequent re-elections have made, or have tended to make, the superintendent devote a portion of his thought and energy to "building fences" to insure his re-election rather than to constructive work in the school system. A longer term makes that unnecessary because it gives the superintendent an opportunity to introduce such changes as he deems desirable, and to secure some results before his work is judged, as it naturally is and should be, when he is re-elected. With a term of reasonable length, the board can and should judge the success of a superintendent by the results of his labor.

This tendency is also seen in the fact that the term is coming to be fixed by state law rather than by the local board of education, as in the past. By fixing his term of office by law, the state protects the superintendent in his position, so that the first storm of popular disfavor which always or usually accompanies his innovations will not sweep him out of office before the results of such innovations become evident or can be measured. The fixing of the length of term by law is justifiable because education in the city is a state function, and because it is of importance to the state that the superintendent be so established that he can fill his position with the highest degree of success.

This tendency is further seen in the increased salary which the superintendent is receiving. The highest salary is \$10,000. The average salary in first, second, and third class cities is respectively about \$7,000, \$4,500, and \$3,000. The average annual salary in twenty-six representative cities has increased \$833 during the past six years. There have been fourteen cases of increase in salary, twelve cases of no change, and no cases of decrease. By increasing the salary of the superintendent, it may be confidently expected that more and better men may be tempted to enter the educational profession. Also with higher salaries generally, superintendents will not be so inclined to leave one place to go to another because of salary.

Finally, this tendency is seen in the definition of the larger functions of the superintendent's office by state law rather than by the local board of education. As we have seen, in a number of cities the state law or the city charter defines the part played by the superintendent in the appointment of teachers.

The final result of this tendency to increase the importance of the superintendent's office will not be to make the superintendent independent of the board. As its officer, the superintendent will always be responsible and accountable to the board of education, just as the board in turn is responsible and accountable to the people. The results should be the firmer establishment of the superintendent of schools on a higher plane of usefulness, adequate provision for the possibility of judging the superintendent by his work, and further provision for making it possible for the superintendent to devote himself exclusively to the work of his office.

THE APPOINTMENT OF TEACHERS. A CONSTRUCTIVE
PLAN

Thus far in this chapter I have characterized the present status and the probable future development of the board of education and of the office of superintendent of schools. This characterization has been based on a study of the present status of the board and of the superintendent in seventy-three representative cities, and on the changes in the organization of the board and of the office of superintendent in twenty-eight of the largest cities in the United States during the past twenty years. In presenting a constructive plan for the appointment of teachers, I shall assume such a board of education and such a superintendent of schools as I have characterized or described.

I make this assumption because in this monograph I am not concerned chiefly with a reorganization of the board or of the office of superintendent, but with a reconstruction of the methods of appointing of teachers. Even though the appointment of teachers is one of the most important functions for which the board and the superintendent are responsible, a reorganization of either appointive agency cannot be properly recommended on the limited basis of this study. Such a reorganization should properly come only after a detailed study of all the functions which each performs or should perform. Hence, I have made a detailed study of the board and of the superintendent only in order to be able to characterize each properly. The only changes which I recommend in the board or the superintendent relate to the proper functions of each in appointing teachers.

In view of the previous detailed characterization and summation of the methods of appointing teachers,¹ the significance of those methods,² and the eligibility qualifica-

¹ Chap. ii.² Chap. iii.

tions of teachers,¹ it is unnecessary to make further summary of those topics here. Instead, I shall offer a constructive plan based on the facts brought out and the conditions revealed in this monograph. This plan will cover not only the formal procedure of making the appointments, but also the other administrative functions or factors necessarily associated with making appointments, namely, eligibility requirements of candidates, the methods of determining their qualifications, the board of examiners, and the merit list of eligible candidates.

(1) ELIGIBILITY REQUIREMENTS OF CANDIDATES

In every city the minimum eligibility requirements for each teaching position should be defined in a direct, comprehensive statement, covering (a) age, (b) academic education, (c) professional training, (d) teaching experience, and (e) other credentials required, such as certificates of birth, health, vaccination, moral character, and graduation. Whether these requirements are fixed by state law or by the local authorities, they should be defined and stated in the published documents of the board of education, so that teachers and others may obtain information on the above topics. Anyone who has tried to make a comparative study of the above facts for a group of cities appreciates how incomplete such information is even in those school documents which profess to give it.

(2) METHODS OF DETERMINING QUALIFICATIONS

Should all candidates be required to take examinations in prescribed subjects, or should candidates holding certificates of graduation from approved institutions be granted certificates of qualification without such examinations?

¹ Chap. iv.

This question is answered in various states and in different cities according to the relative value placed on examinations and on records of work in school. Under present conditions it is clearly possible to require either an examination or a prescribed amount of schooling of an approved character. The real question is, Which is a better measure of the qualifications of a candidate for a teaching position? In Worcester all elementary school candidates must take an examination in the prescribed academic and professional subjects, regardless of their school record. On the other hand, in St. Louis the elementary school candidates who are graduates of approved institutions may be certified and appointed on the basis of their school work.

Lack of agreement as to what subjects should form the basis of the examinations is strikingly shown by the systems of examinations in the five cities¹ especially studied. There are thirty-two different subjects prescribed by name for candidates for an elementary school certificate. Of this extraordinary number, only two subjects, English grammar and American history, are uniformly required in the five cities! The variety of academic subjects allowed and the fact that only a small number of subjects are prescribed seem to indicate that there are exceedingly few, if any, subjects which are considered indispensable in testing a candidate's fitness to teach.

On the other hand, all candidates for teaching positions in our cities may be expected, and indeed required, to have had a reasonable amount of satisfactory schooling in approved institutions. If education in the city is a state function, why should the city expend considerable sums of money annually for the examination of candidates who have been graduated from state normal schools or state universities and who have thereby been approved by the state

¹ Boston, St. Louis, Cincinnati, Worcester, and Portland, Me.

as qualified to teach? In this respect the St. Louis system is commendable. The superintendent of schools is given large discretionary power to grant certificates to teach to graduates of approved institutions without examination. If graduates of certain schools fail frequently, the superintendent has the authority to refuse to grant further certificates. If graduates from certain schools usually succeed, he may adopt a policy of drawing largely on that source of supply.

In view of the foregoing, a system of certification of candidates should be based on the following general plan.

1. There should be an arrangement for accepting certificates of graduation from reputable and approved institutions. The approving of institutions should be done by the proper school authorities and should be based on an examination of the adequacy of the institution to give the amount and character of the instruction indicated in the eligibility requirements or in the prescribed examinations.

2. There should be a system of examinations for those who cannot, for any reason, qualify under the certificate system. The examination should test the fitness of the candidate to teach, and should include academic and professional subjects. The academic examination should test the candidate's knowledge of the subject or subjects which he or she wishes to teach, and such other allied subjects as may be considered essential. The professional examination should test the candidate's ability to teach, as shown by his or her knowledge of principles and methods of teaching and his or her work in the classroom.

(3) THE BOARD OF EXAMINERS TO GRANT CERTIFICATES OF QUALIFICATION

That candidates possess the necessary qualifications to teach in a given city should be certified to by a board of

examiners consisting of professional men and women, of whom the superintendent should be the chief. This board should grant certificates to properly qualified candidates for such positions in the school system, whether they qualify by certificate of graduation from an approved institution or by passing a prescribed examination. The board of examiners should be the authority to approve institutions and to conduct the necessary investigation of institutions for that purpose.

(4) THE MERIT LIST OF ELIGIBLE CANDIDATES

Whether candidates are certified on the basis of their school records or as the result of a prescribed examination, there will still be differences in quality among them. Even though all candidates meet the fixed minimum requirements, some candidates will barely meet them, while others could meet a much higher standard. For example, the minimum requirement for passing the examinations may be 60 per cent. One candidate may obtain exactly 60 per cent, and another may obtain 90 per cent. If the examination is a fair means of testing the teaching ability of candidates, then we must assume that the candidate who obtained 90 per cent is likely to be a better teacher than the one who obtained only 60 per cent. Inasmuch as a city has a right to the best teachers that the established salaries will provide, some way should be found to insure the appointment of those candidates who appear to be best qualified. The best method yet found is a merit list of eligible candidates.

On the basis of their scholarship records in school, or as the result of a prescribed examination, or both, together with such other considerations as may be deemed essential, qualified candidates for the various positions in a school system should be listed according to their qualifications.

There should be as many lists for the elementary schools as there are kinds or ranks of position. In the case of the high school there should be a list of candidates qualified to teach each subject. The names should be accompanied by the ratings of the candidates.

(5) THE PROCEDURE IN MAKING APPOINTMENTS

The board of education is a lay body; it is a deliberative and not an executive body. Its function is to consider educational policies and decide, for example, what kinds of schools the public needs and how much the public can afford to pay for them. In considering these matters it should obtain the advice and counsel of its professional adviser, the city superintendent of schools. Because the board of education consists of laymen, and because its functions should be deliberative and not executive, the board should not directly discharge the important technical and executive function of appointing teachers.

The city superintendent of schools is the board's chief professional executive. It is his chief function to carry into execution the policies of the board and to perform the executive functions for which the board is officially responsible. As an officer of the board, he has no authority except that delegated to him by the board or conferred on him by law. Inasmuch as the appointment of teachers is a professional and executive function, it should be performed by the superintendent of schools, subject, as are all his acts, to the board's approval.

The following recommendations are based on the best practices found in the seventy-three cities. References are given in footnotes to the pages in the preceding monograph where such practices are described.

1. When a regular teacher is to be appointed to fill a

vacancy in the teaching force or to occupy a new position, such teacher should be appointed by the city superintendent of schools, subject to confirmation or rejection by the board of education.¹

2. The authority of the superintendent to make such appointments should be defined by law,² and not left to the discretion of the board.

3. The board should be enjoined by law from participating in the appointment of teachers in any way except to confirm or reject the appointments made by the superintendent.³ The board should have the unquestioned right to obtain full information from the superintendent concerning the qualifications of those whom he appoints.

4. An appointment made by the superintendent should go directly to the board for confirmation, and not pass through the hands of a standing committee.⁴

5. The board should state in its rules the fact that it holds the superintendent responsible for the character of the appointments which he makes.⁵

6. The appointment should always be made from among the first three names on the appropriate eligible list.⁶

7. The superintendent should be required by the rules of the board to consult the principal of the school before making an appointment, or the director of a special department when the teacher is to give instruction in a special subject.⁷

¹ The nine cities in Class A illustrate this method of making appointments. See pp. 37-40.

² See, for example, Rochester, p. 25; Washington, pp. 27-28; and Cleveland, Columbus, Dayton, p. 39.

³ See, for example, Washington, pp. 27-28; Rochester, p. 25. Pittsburgh and Kansas City, Kan., make the same provision in their rules.

⁴ See, for example, Boston, Pittsburgh, Baltimore, New Haven, Albany, Rochester, Nashville, Indianapolis, Seattle, Portland, San Francisco, Jacksonville, Fla., Meridian, Miss., Sioux Falls, S. D., Reno, Nev., pp. 13-16.

⁵ See, for example, Kansas City, Kan., p. 31.

⁶ See, for example, Boston, p. 68.

⁷ See, for example, Boston, p. 38.

In the foregoing study I have maintained that the teacher is the central factor in the problem of providing education. The supervisory officers, the special teachers, the educational equipment, and all other educational resources are for the purpose of improving the instruction which it is the teacher's duty to give. I have shown that annually 6 per cent of the total population in the United States is directly affected by the character of this instruction. I have shown that over 72 per cent of the total operating expenses of our city school systems is for the salaries of teachers, principals, and supervisors.

To the pupil, the teacher is the school. Hence, in a city school system the importance of the teacher cannot be overestimated. The most important single asset which any school system can possess is a corps of efficient teachers. The difference between mediocre teachers and efficient teachers accounts largely for the difference between merely keeping the schools running and keeping them running at a maximum of efficiency.

In securing efficient teachers, the method of making appointments becomes of supreme importance. If from year to year only the best teachers procurable are appointed, a progressively high standard of teaching efficiency can be developed and maintained. If, on the other hand, mediocre teachers are given positions, in time the whole school system becomes permeated by mediocrity. Obviously the best method of securing efficient teachers is one which makes inevitable the appointment of those who are best qualified, and which prevents the appointment of those who are not well qualified.

Almost any reasonable method of appointing teachers will work satisfactorily when conditions are favorable. However, our democratic control of education by means of a lay board established by the composite will of the com-

munity is continually fraught with the danger that an indifferent or misinformed or misguided community may allow the control of education to pass temporarily into the hands of petty politicians, self-seekers, or others whose chief interest is not the proper education of children. Self-seeking politicians have ever sought to secure the political patronage which the school system might provide. The plan of appointing teachers should be one which will, as far as possible, minimize such dangers. It should be one which is most likely to work under unfavorable conditions, one which is not dependent for its success on ideal conditions which are seldom found.

To work reasonably well under all conditions, the plan for the appointment of teachers must recognize the proper functions of each participating agency. The functions of each participant must be clearly defined, so that the responsibility of each is fixed, and hence accountability can be insisted on. There should be no opportunity for misunderstanding of duty or for evasion of responsibility or accountability.

In this chapter I have attempted to formulate such a plan for the appointment of teachers. The plan is a composite of the best features of the methods of appointing teachers in seventy-three representative cities in the United States. While every feature of this plan is in actual practice to-day, the combination of these features is not found in any city. Several cities, however, now approximate to the plan.

In view of the great variety of methods of appointing teachers in the cities studied, it is clear that the adoption of the proposed plan will necessitate some reorganization in many city school systems. In some cases new state laws must be made or old ones modified; in others only local rules and regulations need be changed.

Inasmuch as state legislatures are charged by their respective state constitutions with the responsibility for passing the laws necessary to promote public education, they are usually willing to make those educational laws which cities ask them to make. To secure the needed legislation for a city, therefore, becomes largely a local matter. It is necessary for the people of a city to evince sufficient interest to seek the required legislation. Obviously, to secure changes in the local rules, it is likewise necessary to convince the people and the board of education of the need of the adoption of such a plan for the appointment of teachers as is here proposed. This can be done only by the continual and persistent efforts of those who believe that the teachers are the most important single factor in the schools, that the schools are for the children, and that the children are entitled to the best teachers that the community can provide.

APPENDICES

BIBLIOGRAPHY

THE literature on most phases of educational administration has increased marvelously during the past decade and is now rather extensive. Several of the books on school administration contain fairly large lists of references. Much of this educational literature is to be found in such periodicals as the *Educational Review*, *Education*, *American Education*, and the *American School Board Journal*. The *School Review* and the *Pedagogical Seminary* sometimes contain articles on school administration. Undoubtedly the two largest sources of general information on educational administration are the Reports of the United States Commissioner of Education and the Proceedings of the National Education Association (Department of Superintendence). Because of the prominence of the board of education and of the superintendent of schools in the administration of city school systems, the references and articles on these two subjects in these sources are especially numerous.

During my study of the problems of educational administration I have prepared, from time to time, lists of references on various topics. I have prepared a bibliography of sixty-five titles covering city school organization, administration, and supervision; one of nearly a hundred titles, mostly references to periodical literature, covering the city board of education; and one of one hundred and twenty-five titles on the city superintendent of schools. As I read these articles I annotated each reference, indicating its value to me in my study of the problem of appointing teachers. However, it does not seem to me desirable that I should submit this annotated bibliography as a part of this monograph.

In the first place, little or no direct use is made of these secondary sources in the preparation of this thesis. The nature and purpose of my study precluded any extensive theoretical discussion in which I might have made use of some of these sources.

In the second place, many really important articles are annotated to show only their value to one particularly interested in the appointment of teachers. The annotation does not show what other topics are

discussed in them. To print such annotations is unfair both to the author of the article and to the user of the bibliography. To the former it does not give the credit due the article, and to the latter it does not give complete information.

The bibliography accompanying this monograph gives only a list of the references quoted and a few references to the more important articles on which discussions are based. It is my intention at an early date to publish in some convenient form an annotated bibliography on city educational administration in general and on the city board of education and the city superintendent of schools in particular.

Such a study as I have made in this monograph is naturally based on primary and not secondary sources of information. The main sources of the facts have been the rules and regulations of the boards of education. From them chiefly I have obtained information concerning the methods of appointing teachers in the various cities. In many cases, likewise, I have obtained information concerning the board of education and its committee organization. Inasmuch as I have referred specifically to a school document wherever a quotation has been made or a fact asserted about a city, it is unnecessary to repeat here a list of the rules consulted.

Following is a list of the articles quoted in this monograph and a few of the more important articles which form the basis of this study.

Bard. *The City School District. A Study of the "Statutory Provisions for Organization and Fiscal Affairs in Cities."* Columbia University Contributions to Education, No. 28, pp. 118. 1909.

The author describes the purpose of the monograph as follows: "(1) to point out the relation of the city school district to the city, (2) to determine its relation to the state, (3) to show the nature of the control the state exercises over it, (4) to show the provisions the state has made for the city school district with reference to its organization and fiscal affairs" (p. 7). One of the best sources of information. There is a bibliography of sixty-one titles.

Burnham. *Principles of Municipal School Administration.* Atlantic Monthly, vol. xcii, pp. 105-112. 1903.

Discusses the following ten principles of city school administration: "Any system of school administration should be (1) Economical; (2) free from politics; (3) of such a character as to stimulate and not check the local feeling of interest and responsibility for education; (4) free from artificial limitations, — limitations as regards sex, race, religion, or election of officers; (5) adapted to the community where it exists; (6) independent of the municipal government; (7) the School Board should be small; (8) the executive officers should be experts;

(9) civil service principles should prevail; (10) there should be concentration of power and responsibility" (pp. 108-109).

Chamberlain. *The Growth of Responsibility and Enlargement of Power of the City School Superintendent*. University of California Press. 1913.

The best article on this subject. Traces the tendencies which have brought about the increased power and responsibility of the superintendent. There is a long bibliography, pp. 426-441.

Draper. *Functions of the State Touching Education*. Ed. Rev., vol. xv, pp. 105-120. 1898.

Maintains that education is a state function, as shown by the state constitutions and court decisions; that the state must not only organize and maintain public schools, but also must prevent educational quackery. A vigorous article.

Draper. *Plans of Organization for School Purposes in Large Cities*. Ed. Rev., vol. vi, pp. 1-16. 1893.

An excellent résumé of current practices in the organization of city school systems. Contains a table showing several facts pertaining to the board and the superintendent in all cities of over 100,000.

Fairlie. *The Centralization of Administration in New York State*. Columbia University Studies in History, Economics, and Public Law, vol. ix, No. 3. 1903. Chap. ii, Public Education, pp. 22-77.

Gives an account of the development of state aid and state control. Discusses local school authorities, including city boards of education.

Goodnow. *Municipal Problems*. The Macmillan Co. 1904. Chap. iv, *The Relation of the City to the State*, pp. 62-89.

Does not deal specifically with educational administration, but does discuss the city as an agent of the state.

Hinsdale. *Provisions Concerning Education in the State Constitutions*. Report of the United States Commissioner of Education, vol. ii, pp. 1312-1414. 1892-3.

The article is historical; it quotes the sections of all state constitutions relating to education. A valuable source of information covering the period from 1776 to 1865.

Moore. *How New York Administers its Schools*. World Book Co. 1913.

An illuminating discussion of the methods of work of the large board of education of forty-six members in New York City. A fine analysis of the legal relation of the department of education to the municipal government and to the state.

Rollins. *School Administration in Municipal Government*. Columbia University Contributions to Philosophy, Psychology, and Education, vol. xi, No. 1, pp. 106. 1902.

"The method of this study has been to obtain and record a body of

facts; to collect and compare expert opinions relating to the facts and their results, and to draw such general conclusions as seemed warranted."

— Preface.

Discusses the relation of the city to the state; presents a table showing size, method of selection, term, and other facts concerning the board; also discusses the functions of business manager, superintendent of schools, principals and teachers as administrative agencies. Also the school and the community. Contains a bibliography of sixty-three titles.

Suzzallo. *The Rise of Local School Supervision in Massachusetts*. Columbia University Contributions to Education, vol. i, No. 3, pp. 154. 1906.

Deals historically with the evolution of the school committee in Massachusetts from 1635 to 1827. Traces the evolution from the town meeting, through the selectmen, special committees, to the organization of a permanent school committee in Boston in 1827. Discusses the functions of the school committee in 1827. The best article dealing with this subject.

Webster. *Recent Centralizing Tendencies in State Educational Administration*. Columbia University, Studies in History, Economics, and Public Law, vol. viii, No. 2.

Shows by what methods the state discharges its responsibility for the education of the children of the state. The best treatment of this subject.

Whitten. *Public Administration in Massachusetts. The Relation of Central to Local Activity*. Columbia University, Studies in History, Economics, and Public Law, vol. viii, No. 4. Chap. ii, Public Schools. pp. 19-39.

Gives an account of the evolution of public school administration, showing the extent to which the state exercises control over localities.

Educational Organization and Progress in American Cities. A Symposium on Present Educational Conditions and Needs. Ann. Am. Acad., vol. xxv, pp. 157-188. 1905.

The introduction gives a digest of school laws, covering executive organization, executive duties, and finance. Then follows an account of the powers of the board over the matters suggested. The article covers the following cities: New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, Boston, Baltimore, Cleveland, Buffalo, Cincinnati, Pittsburgh, New Orleans, Milwaukee, Washington, D. C., Providence, Kansas City, Grand Rapids, Seattle, and Duluth; each city is discussed by a local man.

APPENDIX A

TABLES showing, by divisions of the country and by states, the cities studied, classified as first class, second class, or third class cities, and the population of each in 1910 (given only in thousands).

SOUTH CENTRAL DIVISION

States	Cities		
	First Class	Second Class	Third Class
Kentucky	Louisville 223	
Tennessee	Memphis 131	
		Nashville 110	
Alabama	Birmingham 132	
Mississippi	Meridian 23
Louisiana	New Orleans 339		
Texas	San Antonio 96
Arkansas	Little Rock 45
Oklahoma	Oklahoma 64

NORTH CENTRAL DIVISION

States	Cities		
	First Class	Second Class	Third Class
Ohio	Cleveland 560	Columbus 181	
	Cincinnati 363	Dayton 116	
		Toledo 168	
		Indianapolis 233	
Indiana		
Illinois	Chicago 2,185		
Michigan	Detroit 465	Grand Rapids 112	
Wisconsin	Milwaukee 373		
Minnesota	Minneapolis 301	St. Paul 214	
Iowa	Des Moines 86
Missouri	St. Louis 687	Kansas City 248	
N. Dakota	Fargo 14
S. Dakota	Sioux Falls 14
Nebraska	Omaha 124	
Kansas	Kansas City 82

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NORTH ATLANTIC DIVISION

States	Cities		
	First Class	Second Class	Third Class
Maine	Portland 58
New Hampshire	Manchester 70
Vermont	Burlington 20
Massachusetts	Boston 670	Cambridge 104 Fall River 119 Lowell 106 Worcester 145	
Rhode Island	Providence 224	
Connecticut	Bridgeport 102 New Haven 133	
New York	New York 4,766 Buffalo 423	Albany 100 Rochester 218 Syracuse 137	
New Jersey	Newark 347	Jersey City 267 Paterson 125	
Pennsylvania	Philadelphia 1,549 Pittsburgh 533	Scranton 129	

SOUTH ATLANTIC DIVISION

States	Cities		
	First Class	Second Class	Third Class
Delaware	Wilmington 87
Maryland	Baltimore 558		
Dist. of Col.	Washington 331		
Virginia	Richmond 127	
W. Virginia	Wheeling 41
N. Carolina	Charlotte 34
S. Carolina	Charleston 58
Georgia	Atlanta 154	
Florida	Jacksonville 57

WESTERN DIVISION

States	Cities		
	First Class	Second Class	Third Class
Montana	Butte 39
Wyoming	Cheyenne 11
Colorado	Denver 213	
New Mexico	Albuquerque 11
Arizona	Tucson 13
Utah	Salt Lake 92
Nevada	Reno 10
Idaho	Boise 17
Washington	Seattle 237	
		Spokane 104	
Oregon	Portland 207	
California	San Francisco 416	
	Los Angeles 319	Oakland 150	

SUMMARY

Divisions	No. of First Class Cities	No. of Second Class Cities	No. of Third Class Cities	Summary
North Atlantic	6	13	3	22
South Atlantic	2	2	5	9
South Central	1	4	4	9
North Central	7	8	4	19
Western	2	5	7	14
Totals	18	32	23	73

APPENDIX B

TABLES showing the population (Federal Census 1910), the number of teachers, the enrolment, and the salaries paid in the public day schools; the total operating expenses, exclusive of sites, equipment, indebtedness, and interest on the same, in 1911-12, in the cities covered by this study. Compiled from data in the Report of the United States Commissioner of Education, 1912, vol. ii, pp. 31, 69, 106.

FIRST CLASS CITIES

Cities	Population 1910	Teachers in Public Day Schools 1911-12	Enrolment in Public Day Schools 1911-12	Salaries in Public Day Schools 1911-12	Total Expenses ¹ 1911-12
Boston	670,585	2,699	114,165	\$2,945,572	\$4,621,245
New York	4,766,883	17,854	783,245	20,566,996	30,203,613
Buffalo	423,715	1,649	57,827	No data	No data
Newark	347,467	1,473	63,024	1,565,252	2,431,731
Philadelphia	1,549,008	4,517	220,584	3,878,011	6,134,966
Pittsburgh	533,905	1,903	75,888	1,337,202	2,072,175 ²
Baltimore	558,485	1,793	72,105	1,268,016	1,916,807
Washington	331,069	1,694	56,784	No data	No data
New Orleans	339,075	1,133	42,110	774,180	1,112,167
Cleveland	560,663	2,319	76,610	2,165,471	2,982,283
Cincinnati	363,591	1,043	56,082	1,219,566	1,729,311
Chicago	2,185,283	6,615	307,281	No data	No data
Detroit	465,766	1,561	63,758	1,432,553	2,081,123
Milwaukee	373,857	1,277	51,750	1,190,851	1,798,978
Minneapolis	301,408	1,224	46,779	1,237,187	1,834,585
St. Louis	687,029	2,097	94,925	2,108,894	3,425,523
San Francisco	416,912	1,088	45,497	1,312,177	1,865,634
Los Angeles	319,198	1,718	62,647	1,943,922	2,627,488
Totals	15,193,899	53,657	2,291,061	\$44,945,850	\$66,837,629

¹ Exclusive of sites, equipment, indebtedness, and interest on same.

² For 1910-11.

SECOND CLASS CITIES

Cities	Population 1910	Teachers in Public Day Schools 1911-12	Enrolment in Public Day Schools 1911-12	Salaries in Public Day Schools 1911-12	Total Expenses ¹ 1911-12
Cambridge	104,839	433	16,833	\$356,426	\$542,126
Fall River	119,295	519	16,913	304,695	511,317
Lowell	106,294	327	13,049	248,710	432,947
Worcester	145,986	604	23,539	541,788	828,456
Providence	224,326	839	35,398	653,271	1,094,135
Bridgeport	102,054	327	15,019	198,005	316,663
New Haven	133,605	624	25,590	465,488	664,676
Albany	100,253	324	12,384	253,324	411,604
Rochester	218,149	707	27,648	701,256	998,571
Syracuse	137,249	568	21,201	381,056	659,000
Jersey City	267,779	826	38,016	777,201	1,221,312
Paterson	125,600	500	21,206	375,645	546,552
Scranton	129,867	569	23,070	No data	No data
Richmond	127,628	451	17,488	253,922	377,623
Atlanta	154,839	450	22,147	350,150	422,316
Louisville	223,928	690	29,601	484,874	772,941
Memphis	131,105	422	17,584	301,649	479,728
Nashville	110,364	346	17,079	256,708	380,845
Birmingham	132,685	537	23,474	279,774	449,707
Columbus	181,511	683	25,648	596,050	962,527
Dayton	116,577	418	15,931	342,141	511,594
Toledo	168,497	670	25,131	519,447	818,814
Indianapolis	233,650	924	34,204	No data	No data
Grand Rapids	112,571	495	16,584	397,110	637,210
St. Paul	214,744	727	28,708	519,762	775,661
Omaha	124,096	507	19,553	382,953	693,282
Kansas City	248,381	962	37,937	771,473	1,317,590
Denver	213,381	930	38,312	920,095	1,328,679
Seattle	237,194	922	32,592	1,111,330	1,562,903
Spokane	104,402	457	17,433	461,762	728,885
Portland	207,214	761	30,102	779,919	1,165,852
Oakland	150,174	517	21,722	625,211	895,483
Totals	5,108,237	19,126	761,096	\$14,611,195	\$22,508,999

¹ Exclusive of sites, equipment, indebtedness, and interest on same.

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THIRD CLASS CITIES

Cities	Population 1910	Teachers in Public Day Schools 1911-12	Enrolment in Public Day Schools 1911-12	Salaries in Public Day Schools 1911-12	Total Expenses ¹ 1911-12
Portland, Me.	58,571	295	10,077	No data	No data
Manchester, N. H.	70,063	184	8,006	\$85,048	\$186,953
Burlington, Vt.	20,468	100	3,000	No data	No data
Wilmington, Del.	87,411	No data	No data	"	"
Wheeling, W. Va.	41,641	154	5,613	"	"
Charlotte, N. C.	34,014	108	5,595	"	"
Charleston, S. C.	58,833	131	5,784	62,498	105,190
Jacksonville, Fla.	57,699	160	8,207	No data	No data
Meridian, Miss.	23,285	91	4,935	"	"
San Antonio, Tex.	96,614	323	14,434	"	"
Little Rock, Ark.	45,941	171	7,487	100,113	168,519
Oklahoma, Okla.	64,205	385	13,683	No data	No data
Des Moines, Ia.	86,368	495	17,659	380,233	647,670
Fargo, N. D.	14,331	70	2,436	No data	No data
Sioux Falls, S. D.	14,094	83	2,833	61,032	122,866
Kansas City, Kan.	82,331	349	14,593	272,658 ²	384,059
Butte, Mont.	39,165	235	7,074	212,617	354,527
Cheyenne, Wy.	11,320	49	1,844	33,027	60,292
Albuquerque, N. M.	11,020	50	1,998	31,098	56,283
Tucson, Ariz.	13,193	No data	No data	No data	No data
Salt Lake, Utah	92,777	562	19,561	461,825	715,708
Reno, Nev.	10,867	51	1,856	48,440	64,372
Boise, Idaho	17,358	126	4,219	106,137	163,758
Totals	1,051,569	4,172	159,994	\$1,854,726	\$3,030,197

TOTALS FOR ALL CITIES STUDIED

Cities	Population 1910	Teachers in Public Day Schools ² 1911-12	Enrolment in Public Day Schools 1911-12	Salaries in Public Day Schools 1911-12	Total Expenses ¹ 1911-12
First class	15,193,899	53,657	2,291,061	\$44,945,850	\$66,837,629
Second class	5,108,237	19,126	761,096	14,611,195	22,508,999
Third class	1,051,569	4,172	159,994	1,854,726	3,030,197
Totals	21,353,705	76,955	3,212,151	\$61,411,771	\$92,376,825

¹ Exclusive of sites, equipment, indebtedness, and interest on same.² For 1910-11.

COMPARISONS

The following comparisons show the relation of the cities covered in this study to the cities of the country in respect to the items in the table above. Data taken from the Report of the United States Commissioner of Education, 1912, vol. ii.

1. POPULATION

Actual Population and Distribution in 1910

Total population	91,972,266	
Urban population	42,623,383, or 46.3 per cent	
Rural population	49,348,883, or 53.7 per cent	
(a) Total urban population, 1910	42,623,383	
(b) Total for cities studied, 1910	21,353,705	
(c) Per cent latter is of former		50.9

2. TEACHERS

(a) Total for cities of country, 1911	154,815	
(b) Total for cities studied, 1911	76,955	
(c) Per cent latter is of former		49.7

3. ENROLMENT

Total for cities of country, 1911	6,141,866	
Total for cities studied, 1911	3,212,151	
Per cent latter is of former		52.2

4. SALARIES

(a) Total for cities of country, 1911	\$128,433,819	
(b) Total for cities studied, 1911	66,411,771	
(c) Per cent latter is of former		51.7

5. OPERATING EXPENSES

(a) Total for cities of country, 1911	\$177,393,567	
(b) Total for cities studied, 1911	92,476,845	
(c) Per cent latter is of former		52.1

APPENDIX C

MEMORANDUM CONCERNING THE CITY OF.....

I. On the appointment of teachers.

Who nominates or recommends candidates?

Who appoints?

Who approves the appointments?

Is there a merit list of candidates?

II. On the board of education.

Number of members

Term of office in years

Compensation

How members are chosen

By whom

At large or by wards

Number of standing committees

Average number of members on standing committees

Number of members on the committee on teachers

Qualifications of board members

III. On the superintendent of schools.

How chosen?

Tenure of office, First appointment

Second appointment

No difference made

How tenure is fixed, By law

By rules of the board

Left to discretion of board

Amount of salary

How salary is fixed, By law

By rules of the board

Left to discretion of board

Qualifications required

Conditions of removal of superintendent during term

Signed.....

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